

SYNCHRONISED

CONFERENCES

OF THE

WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION
ASSOCIATIONS

THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION
OF ASSOCIATIONS OF SECONDARY
TEACHERS

& THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION
OF TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS

OXFORD

10th-17th AUGUST

1935

*Report of
Proceedings*





FRED MANDER

(President, World Federation of Education Associations).
(Member of Executive Bureau, International Federation of Teachers'
Associations)
(General Secretary, National Union of Teachers).

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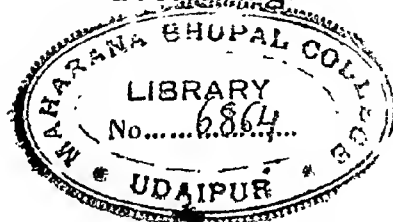
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GENERAL MEETINGS

FIRST GENERAL MEETING

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY AND CIVIC WELCOME

The First General Meeting was held at the Sheldonian Theatre on Monday, 12th August, at 8 p.m., under the Chairmanship of Mr. F. Mander, who declared the First Session of the Conference opened.

The Passing of Dr. Augustus O. Thomas

Before proceeding with the business of the meeting, the President referred to the fact that since their last Conference the World Federation—and he thought he might say world education as a whole—had suffered a severe loss in the death of the Secretary-General. Dr. Thomas rendered outstanding service to the cause of education and to the cause of peace. He gave his services in a spirit of devotion which refused to recognise the possibility of failure. The world was indeed the poorer by his death, but it was infinitely the richer by his life. The President asked the members of the Assembly to salute the memory of a man who, during his life, fought the good fight and then passed on to a well-earned rest. The Assembly stood in silence to the memory of Dr. Thomas.

Lord Halifax welcomes Conference

The Right Hon. Viscount Halifax (Chancellor of Oxford University) welcomed the Conference in the following speech: "It is my privilege to-night to welcome to the University of Oxford delegates from all over the world to the Conferences of the World Federation of Education Associations and its allied bodies. The privilege—for indeed

I regard it as such—falls to me primarily as Chancery of the University ; but I cannot forget that until two months ago—at the time when I accepted this invitation—I was also President of the Board of Education and, as such, I was able fully to realise the efforts which have been made to prepare for these Conferences, and the results which may be expected from them.

It seems—if I may say so—peculiarly appropriate that your choice has fallen on this University. Oxford—we are told—was originally founded at the end of the fourteenth century by a migration of students from the sister University of Paris ; and throughout the centuries its doors have been constantly open to searchers after knowledge and truth from all parts. And in these later days it has opened its doors still wider to receive students of different races, culture and religion, and has drawn many of its best and most loyal sons through the benefactions of Cecil Rhodes. It is therefore in the natural fitness of things that Oxford should be glad to receive a gathering like this, and should feel proud that you should have chosen it as the home of your conferences.

But there is another reason why Oxford is specially suitable. For the influence of this University on English history has been exerted pre-eminently through ideas—ideas that lead to action, just as the trail of gunpowder leads to the discharge. It is indeed through ideas that Oxford has left its mark deep upon the national thought and character in the history of Church and State. Here then is the second reason why your choice of Oxford is appropriate. For I take it that the object of conferences, so widely representative, is to pool and exchange educational ideas and to draw inspiration from them.

As we look back over history we see that circumstances alter and conditions vary, while the currents of thought flow on—now smoothly, now in full spate—cutting for themselves, like rivers, new and unfamiliar courses. Our predecessors would indeed have felt themselves in strange company to-day. Yet, though the horizons are wider and the path, as to-day, is often rough and difficult, still the eternal quest after many-sided truths remains the same—that quest to which the mind and soul of man constantly turn, because by its pursuit and the approach to it alone can he solve the great riddle of his relation to the Universe. And so those who seek truth through philosophy, art, science, the study of history and the thought of those who have preceded

us ; and those whose business it is to adminster, and those whose privilege it is to teach—all are comrades in arms in the great cause of fashioning human personality, which is true education. In loyalty to this purpose Oxford remains unchanging and unchanged ; and, in the name of the University, I hold it as a privilege to welcome a company gathered from all over the world, whose work, by moulding the moral and intellectual background of life in the different States here represented, must so powerfully affect civilisation.

The National Union of Teachers have deserved well of all who realise these values by organising the conferences ; and in particular we must all feel grateful for the work by Mr. Mander, whom this University of Oxford to-morrow will count among her sons. And I trust that the conferences on which you are now entering will more than fulfil the hopes of those who passionately seek to build the foundations of a happier world, and who believe that education—in its widest application—is the surest instrument for the achievement of their end."

Vice-Chancellor of Oxford University

The Rev. F. J. Lys (Vice-Chancellor of Oxford University) said it was a great privilege to be allowed, on behalf of the resident members of the University, to take part in the welcome to an assembly representative of so many sides of education all working for the same great and single cause for which the University stood—the advancement of knowledge and the widest possible diffusion of it. He wished to congratulate all who had a part in that Congress on the great improvement which had taken place in his own lifetime—and was still taking place, and to which so many of those present were contributing—in the preparation of children for a fuller life, in providing for every child the opportunity of developing its powers, in learning the best that the human spirit had achieved for the equipment of the mind, for the training of the body, for the making of character, for the enrichment of life in all ways. He trusted that their meetings in Oxford might be very happy and very fruitful.

Deputy-Mayor of Oxford

Alderman Miss Lily S. Tawney (Deputy-Mayor of Oxford) said she was sure the Mayor, who was unable to be present, would wish her to express his great regret

at his unavoidable absence. They were proud of their city, which had a great history going back for over a thousand years. They had a right to be proud of their city, and as citizens they were proud of their University. If they regarded the University as the offspring of the city, they were ready to acknowledge that the University had brought beauty and interest to Oxford. They were very glad that Oxford had been chosen as the meeting-place for the Conference. She hoped the delegates would find time to make acquaintance with the beauties of the city. In the name of the Mayor and citizens she gave them all a hearty welcome.

The Chairman, Oxford City Education Committee

Councillor H. W. B. Joseph (Chairman, Oxford City Education Committee) welcomed the delegates, and speaking from the Education Committee's point of view said that all they could do was to encourage and lay down certain lines of direction and provide buildings and equipment for their work. In this direction they were sometimes hampered by lack of funds and the unwillingness of the members of the public, who did not sufficiently appreciate the importance of their work, to put their hands in their pockets for the making of better provision. That was one reason why they in Oxford should be grateful that their city had been chosen as the venue of this great Congress. It would help to direct the attention of the citizens to the importance of education.

The President, in calling upon Mr. J. W. H. Brown (President, N.U.T.) to speak, said that Lord Halifax had been kind enough to make a very appreciative reference to the part played by the National Union of Teachers in the work of organising the Conference. He would like the members of the Assembly to know that throughout there had been complete co-operation with other Associations of Teachers, and in calling upon Mr. Brown he called upon him as President of the N.U.T., and also in the wider sense as Chairman of the Central Organising Committee, representative of a large number of Associations.

The President of the N.U.T.

Mr. Brown said it was a very great privilege on that occasion—which he ventured to call historic—to be asked

to welcome, on behalf of the National Union of Teachers and other organisations of teachers in the British Isles, that great Conference to Oxford. The National Union of Teachers was perhaps led to invite this great synchronised Conference to meet in Oxford by the realisation of the need for greater co-operation between the International Organisations of Teachers. It appeared that there was the possibility of making them more effective if each could be got to co-operate with the other and if a certain degree of overlapping could be eliminated. If their efforts during the present week were successful they would have done something towards the attainment of these desirable objectives. He could visualise the time when the words which they heard during the coming week might be forgotten, when the new ideas projected upon their minds might in some degree have faded. But he ventured to express the hope that there would linger a memory, clear and well-defined and, he hoped, ineffaceable, of the time spent in that beautiful city, spent, he trusted, profitably for the great cause—for all of them were there largely because they felt they were making some contribution towards the attainment of that world peace which they all so ardently desired. And if the N.U.T. and the other friendly organisations of teachers which had collaborated with it could only feel that they had done even a little to help forward the objectives and advance the ideals of the W.F.E.A., the I.F.T.A., and the I.F.A.S.T.—representative together of some fifty different countries and some hundreds of thousands of teachers and others interested in education, they would be amply repaid.

The President said a Conference such as theirs would have been quite impossible unless there had been, in Oxford itself, a strong and efficient local Conference Council. They had had such a Council, magnificent in its industry and in its efficiency, and he was going to call upon the Chairman, Councillor J. R. Benson, to convey greetings to the Assembly.

The Chairman of the Local Conference Council

Councillor Benson said he felt it an honour to have been asked to offer a word of welcome to colleagues and friends from far and near who were co-workers in the great cause of education. As a member of the Oxford City Council

he would wish to associate himself very closely with the sentiment expressed in such a delightful manner by the Deputy-Mayor. As one who had been closely associated with the educational system of the city, he was naturally deeply interested in the subjects set out on the agenda for discussion, and was sure that the consideration given to them would result in a closer mutual understanding of each other's difficulties. His experience as a teacher of long standing had convinced him that nothing could more surely tend towards that peace of nations which had been strongly stressed during the past few days than a good, sound, broad-based education. He ventured to hope that his audience would agree with him that education divorced from religion and religious practice was not of itself sufficient to train the whole individual. They had never heard it said, he thought, that education alone would bring peace and goodwill towards men. Mr. Benson referred to the splendid team work which had characterised the preparations for the Conference, in which teachers engaged in all types of education had taken part. He had been delighted to have the privilege of working, for the last six months or so, on behalf of the Conference, and sincerely trusted that their visit would prove both profitable and pleasurable.

The President, in responding to the words of welcome, said that he did so the more gladly because those words had been preceded, during recent months, by deeds expressed in terms of encouragement, co-operation and service. From the Government, the University and City of Oxford, and the Organising Committees themselves, they had received the utmost assistance and support, and on behalf of those present he moved :

“That the best thanks of the Congress be given to the Chancellor, who has addressed us on behalf of the Government, to the Vice-Chancellor, to the Deputy-Mayor, to the Chairman of the Education Committee and to the Local Organising Committee for their greetings, their words of welcome and their assistance so readily given.”

The motion was carried with acclamation.

The President's Address

On rising to give his Presidential Address, Mr. Mander was warmly applauded. He said : “It is now twelve years

since the World Federation of Education Associations had its birth. The representative educators of many nations who brought it into existence set before themselves a great and noble objective. Put consisely, their aim was to *promote* good will and mutual understanding between peoples, and to make a lasting contribution to the cause of peace through world co-operation in education.

They saw in the world around them numerous instruments for the prevention of war, in the form of international law; pacts, alliances and diplomacy; international courts and the League of Nations. They apprciated to the full the purpose and importance of such instruments, and, in particular, recognised the beneficent potentialities of the League of Nations as a means for the peaceful settlement of international disputes.

But they conceived, and I think rightly, that these things, although important, were not sufficient in themselves to remove the root causes of international discord. It was, they were convinced, not enough for nations to conclude pacts and treaties, or even to disarm. Treaties solemnly signed could be torn up later if there were not abiding trust and confidence between the nations. Arms hesitantly relinquished could be resumed; the bayonet buried in the ground could be withdrawn again unless the attitude of mind which led to its forging could be buried with it. I think the conception present in their minds has never been more admirably expressed than in the words of Herr Stresemann:

‘It is not,’ said the great German statesman, ‘in legal formulæ and treaties, although they are necessary, that the truth is to be born which is to save humanity. It must have its inspiration and source in the souls of men.’

A Time of Disillusionment

How sure were the *instincts* of our founders has been demonstrated during the passage of the years. We meet to-night at a time of considerable *disillusionment*; confidence in collective instruments for the prevention of war has been shaken, and it is now clear that hopes placed on mere machinery were set too high. ‘The Parliament of Man, the Federation of the World,’ still belongs to the region of poetry; the world super-state, to which all national sovereignties shall subordinate themselves, as yet has arisen only from the materials of idealism.

The hard fact of the world to-day is the reassertion of nationhood—the reassertion of the right of the individual nation to determine its own destiny and to decide for itself what measures are necessary to safeguard it. At the same time new conceptions of the nature and purpose of a state are developing upon widely divergent lines, and are increasingly influencing the relationship of peoples with one another, while racial prejudices continue to constitute an obstacle to the comity of nations. Unless existing conditions can be removed, or substantially modified, and a greater and more universal sense of community and good will developed throughout the world, no machinery set up can offer a firm promise of permanent security. The League of Nations cannot be more than the Nations of the League, and can only be made to fulfil its highest purpose by peoples possessing an attitude of mind which is ready to relinquish ancient prejudices in favour of a new outlook.

It was precisely in the development of this new outlook among the nations that our founders believed that educators, co-operating on a world basis, might hope to play a helpful part. They set out to establish throughout the world an educational probity which in time would lead to a change of mind, a new disposition towards international amity, without which the best-worded treaty or agreement will be a mere scrap of paper.

Changing Mental Habits of the World

If, ladies and gentlemen, I have correctly conceived the aim and mission of the World Federation, its members have voluntarily assumed a great and serious responsibility. The educational method of contributing to the improvement of international relationships, involving, as it does, changing the mental habits of the world, must necessarily be a slow one. It will be a process of evolution, not of revolution. We of this generation can only make a beginning, but it is a beginning worth while, at any rate for those who believe that the world might have been in a happier state to-day had such a beginning been made a generation sooner.

If success is ultimately to be attained we must proceed upon sound and practical lines. Mere idealism, however eloquently expressed, will not take us far. The educator must firmly resist the narcotic of mere rhetoric and with complete frankness, sincerity and realism examine the materials upon and with which he must work.

There must, from the outset, be a frank recognition of

the fact of nationhood, and its complete compatibility with a sense of world community. We can no more shed our sense of nationality than we can rid ourselves of our skins nor is there any reason why we should desire to do so. This hall to-night is full of men and women who love their country, but they do not, on that account, like John Randolph, the Virginian, allow their patriotism to end at the boundary line of their own state. Deeply-rooted in the love of their own land, they are able to rise above national limits in a spirit of service to humanity as a whole. That, to my mind, is the right conception of the relationship between nationalism and internationalism.

In any case, nationalism is an existing and persistent actuality and cannot be ignored. For many years to come individual nations will continue to preserve their independence and to devise their own forms of government. Consequently our task is not to turn out myriads of machine-stamped citizens to inhabit a standardised world, or to strive for a soulless cosmopolitanism: our task is to produce the maximum of harmony in the midst of a natural and widespread diversity.

Three Factors of the Problem

The practical problem of peace is the problem of adjusting conflicting outlooks and interests among differing nations. Its solution calls, in particular, for three things—understanding, appreciation and sympathy, all of which can be developed in some measure through education. Let it be clear that I use the word ‘understanding’ in a scientific sense. We need to grasp the facts concerning the social, political and economic movements of the races. Without a scientific attitude and informed minds we cannot hope to escape from the prejudice and bias which lie at the root of much international misunderstanding.

From scientific understanding it is but a short step to appreciation—to the realisation that each race or nation has its own contribution to make, and that through its art, literature and learning it can bring its own special gifts to the treasure-house of culture which is the inheritance of the whole world. ‘God has written one line of his thought upon each people.’ These were the words of Mazzini, the great Italian patriot, and they express in terms of picturesque wisdom the fact that each nation has its own inherent characteristics and qualities which are of distinct value to humanity. A world teeming with human repeat

patterns would not be enriched ; it would be infinitely impoverished.

Moreover, power of appreciation will reveal to the man who has tended to regard himself as belonging to the chosen race, that he belongs merely to a self-chosen race, and that his assumption of national or racial superiority does not necessarily possess divine sanction or a god-like infallibility. In this way it will assist the development of that probity of mind in the sphere of education which is our objective, and lead to the furnishing of the people of various countries with more correct information about their neighbours and their relations with them. The substitution of the faithful portrait for the caricature will make for greater truth in the presentation of national history and the demonstration of the advantages of peace over war.

But although appreciation can be developed on the plane of intellect, sympathy can only be developed through the associated life of men. The one is of the mind, the other of the heart—actual contact is necessary for its full fruition. For that reason we need to bring the nations more closely together by travel, interchange of visits, exchange of professors, teachers and students, by summer schools and such gatherings as these. Previous experience of each other has taught us that although the nations are wonderfully different, they are also, in many human respects, wonderfully alike. Through education we can hope to comb out a host of common virtues, tastes and ideals which will tend to link together peoples however diverse in race, colour, religion and general philosophy. That is the aim of our Federation—it exists to mobilise education in the service of humanity at peace.

But, although probably the largest in membership, the World Federation is by no means the only international organisation of educators claiming, among other things, to work for peace. Up to the present there has been all too little contact between us, and all too great a disposition for each to cling to its right of self-determination as tenaciously as the nations themselves.

Glass Houses

It has always appeared to me that our influence has thereby been diminished. Our appeal for a greater sense of community among the nations must lack somewhat in sincerity, and fail to carry complete conviction, unless we can demonstrate to the world our own willingness and ability

to develop a sense of community with one another. In this matter we are dwellers in glass houses, and our most admirable precepts will be vitiated by a bad example. Our efficiency will also suffer if there is overlapping of function, or lack of co-ordination in our efforts—still more so if there should be any element of competition between us either for membership or influence.

It was with a cordial desire to join hands with other international bodies working for the same, or similar, ends that the World Federation at Dublin two years ago decided to make contact with the International Federation of Teachers' Associations, and the International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers. The first fruits of those contacts were decisions to organise the congresses of the three bodies this year in Oxford at the same time, and to appoint representatives to discuss how far it might be possible to go forward together in the future.

In the name of the World Federation I extend cordial greetings to our colleagues from the kindred associations who are here to-night. I have briefly, and necessarily in general terms, indicated the broad aims and aspirations of the World Federation in order to enable them to estimate the character and purpose of the body which seeks their co-operation. Having done so, I can only express the fervent hope that mutual contact and the friendly exchange of views may lead to fruitful results.

Our organisations are great and important, and there have been good reasons for their separate growth. But the interests of Education and Peace are still greater, and amply justify a patient and determined attempt to find a co-operative foundation for future effort. If it be at all possible, let us join hands in a great cause, and agree to go forward together on a mission than which there can be none nobler under Heaven—the mission of cross-fertilising the minds of the peoples of all nations with ideals of good will, friendship and lasting peace."

L. C. Buurveld (Secretary-General of the International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers): "In the name of the International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers I have the great honour to offer respectful greetings to the British Government, to the City and University of Oxford, to all our colleagues, both of the old World and the new, and to all those who are taking part in the work of the Congress.

I offer the most sincere thanks to the English Education Authorities, who have given more than moral support to this Congress and to the English teachers who have organised it, more especially to the National Union of Teachers, whose generous invitation made it possible for the three International Federations to hold their Congresses at the same time and in the same place.

We consider it a great advantage to be able to come together in England and to have the opportunity of becoming more closely acquainted with the country and the people of England. We know England as a country with an old civilisation, which has given to the world great scholars, great artists and great men of action. We are conscious that we are among a people possessed by a great spirit of enterprise in all fields of activity, commerce, navigation, industry and agriculture.

When I think of your great achievements, I think also of your education. For it is this education which has produced the characteristics which have made possible these achievements. You have always realised that education should be based to a large extent on the formation of character. On one hand your schools have trained for leadership, on another hand for readiness to follow the lead of those who have been chosen as guides. This education has been favourable to the production of a strong individuality but an individuality which, in addition, has learnt to respect the opinions and the rights of others.

We count it a privilege to be now in a position to learn at closer quarters something of your education, which is so characteristic of your people.

We are, therefore, happy to be able to meet in the very metropolis of English education, the City of Oxford, this City so historical and so picturesque. I believe that the peculiar atmosphere of this place has already exercised a favourable influence on our labours.

We appreciate also the opportunity of making the acquaintance of educators and colleagues of two other international groups. Such a congress is not of use solely on account of the subjects discussed in the public sessions. Already the personal contacts which have been established among colleagues of different nations have a value in connection with cultural relations between countries which cannot be disregarded. Further, these international relations enable us to obtain a closer knowledge and a better

understanding of countries and of people. By knowing them better we come to appreciate them better.

We live in a time of great economic depression. Every such period brings dangers to civilisation, entrusted to a large extent to our care. But let us not lose hope. The history of the world is only a record of gradual transitions. Progress can be followed by transient periods of retrogression. The hope of a better future persists always; if it were abandoned everything would be lost.

It is to our care that are confided the interests of youth. Hence to a large extent the future rests in our hands. Let us hope that, thanks to our efforts, our children may yet see the light of that better future for which the world is seeking.

Mr. President, may I hope that this Congress will make its contribution to this noble end."

L. Dumas (Secretary-General of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations): "I am proud, and rather afraid, of the privilege of addressing the representatives of Oxford University and delegates of so many education associations on behalf of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations, which gathers 534,700 teachers belonging to thirty-two national independent Unions, united in favour of a professional co-operation and promotion of peace among peoples.

Our Federation is neutral—that is to say independent of any political party and religious creed. We know that customs, habits, practices, even some expressions of moral life are different in every country. We do not desire to reduce humanity to one theoretical and abstract type. Under superficial differences we look for discovering subterranean sources from which the touching unity of mankind springs as living waters of brotherhood.

May I tell you that our neutrality does not mean indifference, neither scepticism, nor cowardice. Tolerant, we explain the deep reasons on which our tolerance is founded, but we go further: we defend tolerance and we fight against intolerance.

Tolerance! Where better than here, in Oxford, could we speak of tolerance. Is there a better place, or more symbolic, than Oxford to glorify tolerance and declare our common hate of tyranny—at school and out of school!

Oxford, indeed, is not only the city of spires and towers adorned with all the graces, with the charm of its old walls,

its colleges, its steeples, and its churches : blooming crown laid among the valley. Oxford is not only the quiet and clean city of learning, where the mildness of the languishing Thames gliding between the flowers and the meadows is mixed with the mildness of the sky.

Oxford has also seen, in the thirteenth century, the first attempts of organising a parliamentary regime against the royal absolutism of this period. Oxford heard the voice of Wycliffe, telling again the original fraternity of men, of Erasmus, of reformers—some of them paying with their life the defence of individual liberty of opinion. May I add that in Oxford, Ruskin began to lecture about what he called 'The mental slavery of the workers.'

Oxford saw during centuries of the past the continuous struggle for freedom. Some battles were lost. But against obstacles and violence Liberty, ever attacked, remains victorious over the city and over fanaticisms as the glorious tower of Saint Mary the Virgin raises its floodlit tower at night over darkened silent quadrangles and sleeping cloisters.

If Oxford is the best place to hold such a Conference in favour of Idealism, might not duly qualified teachers be told to defend freedom, tolerance, and, briefly, Spirit against Force.

Is not our class-room a small world in which we train pupils to live in friendship ? Is not our class a living example of a community based upon justice and freedom ? Are not our pupils educated to be citizens—or to be slaves ? And how would it be possible for us teachers to separate tolerance with children from tolerance with men and from tolerance between nations ? How could you oppose the feelings of every people, that is to say a rooted peace against the world-wide sense of humanity as primitive tribes marked their attachment to their rites and totems by universal hostility ?

So, our Federation does not disjoin our desire to better school methods and our will to promote peace. Freedom, Tolerance, Peace, are three aspects of the same deep need of mankind of which we are the humble, loyal and devoted servants.

And what better confirmation of this devotion to humanity and what greater proof of idealism that the presence here of delegates representing hundreds of thousands of teachers from the whole civilised world.

At the present time, in spite of the economical crisis, in spite of the lowering of our standard of life, in spite of

political difficulties and oppositions, is it not of good comfort to know that I speak on behalf of teachers who have freely cut out of their salary to let you know their faith for peace and liberty. Teachers lost in mountain villages, teachers of industrial cities, teachers of Scandinavia and teachers of Australia, unknown teachers of the world, all from their class-room tell unanimously their desire for Freedom, and, with Shelley, who was an Oxonian, although he was expelled, we can repeat :—

‘ But above all other things,
 Spirit, I love thee—
 ‘Thou art Love and Life’ Oh come,
 Make once more my heart thy home.’ ”



[Photo Allen (Oxford)]

NEW COLLEGE BELL TOWER (1386)

SECOND GENERAL MEETING

The Second General Meeting was held on Tuesday, 13th August, at 8 p.m., in the Sheldonian Theatre, under the chairmanship of Miss A. R. Morison (President, Organising Committee of International Congress of Secondary Education).

Lord Tweedsmuir (Governor-General designate of Canada), in his welcome address, told the delegates that for the past fifteen years his home had only been four miles from Oxford, and that he greeted them as a member of their profession.

"You have the most difficult and the most important task in the world," he said. "It is of universal interest; it knows no frontiers or race or nationality. It is the basis of all civilisation.

Education can know no tariff barriers, for on that subject every country has something to teach and something to learn from other countries.

This difficult world of ours to-day can only be saved by thinking people, by educated people, by people such as you, who realise the intellectual and the spiritual foundations of all civilisation and are resolute to maintain them."

The Chairman's Address

Miss Morison said: "On behalf of the Federation I wish to thank from our hearts the N.U.T. for their cordial invitation to co-operate with them—at a great cost in expenditure and in trouble. I have had a much longer professional life than most of you, and one of the constant regrets has been that we work in such watertight compartments. On this occasion the gates have been opened, and I have not heard that any one of the three Associations has been flooded. 'A joyful and pleasant thing it is to be thankful,' and we do thank the N.U.T., and we thank also all those on the Oxford Committees who have laboured so hard and so successfully to make our visit such a happy one. Last, but

certainly not least, we thank the Government for their friendly greetings and in anticipation for to-morrow's garden party.

Now I know that most people are a little tired of speeches. At the great meeting last night I found myself pondering on the real reason for our gathering here. Why have we come from the New World and the Old, from north and south and east and west? Many have travelled very far and the length of their journey has been more than the duration of their visit. We have not come only to meet organisations. I think the answer is given in the old prophecy, 'A little child shall lead them.' It is our devotion to, our love for the children that is our real bond. A child is a wonderful creature. I have taught for about forty years, and in retrospect I can truthfully say that with children I have never had a dull moment—with grown-ups, yes—but *never* with children. I only wish they could say the same of their time with me! And one of the joys of a child is that you can't organise it—it is and says and does the unexpected. You can classify it if you like, examine it, make statistics, bring it up in the same home, same school, same conditions, and each one will elude all external pressure and develop itself. It is always surprising you. We have it on the highest authority that to know a child is to know the Kingdom of Heaven. To all of us here is given the chance of the Beatific Vision. It is right that we should explore and search and compare and struggle after the best way of educating children, but when you look back at your own education what do you remember most vividly? Isn't it the people who taught you? A few years ago I asked the headmaster of one of our greatest public schools what he remembered of his education: his answer was 'One division—one master.'

Has it not been truly said that education is infecting, not injecting, and that it is the release of power from within and not the imposition of facts from without? And may I here mention some of the things about which we may well feel some uneasiness for our children. First, can we do more to secure and safeguard quiet in this age that has been described as 'this nerve-racked, speed-maddened population that finds its relaxation in swift ironmongery?' Weren't some of the most glorious moments in all our childhood the hour we spent sitting on one leg on floor or window-sill devouring books? It is difficult to secure quiet times for the children's reading, and yet silence is necessary to the



A DELEGATE FROM THE EAST

sentence the wisdom which people of more elaborate culture would need much of literature or science to express.

Recently I came across a proverb of an Oriental people that contains much wisdom for us of the present generation and particularly for us in the teaching profession. Embodying the truth that you can only reach the goal which lies beyond by constant reference to the past they express this truth in the proverb, 'He who does not look back will lose his way.'

The first point which I wish to make this evening is that many people of our own day and generation are deliberately seeking to cut themselves off from their own past. This may be done in a variety of ways : it may be done by simply ignoring the past ; it may be done by repudiating the past and denying flatly the experience of the past. They try to set up new institutions, new goals, new objectives which have little or no contact with the past. Some people have deliberately set out to reconstruct their lives on the basis of their present desires and ambitions, and have created an artificial past which has little or no semblance to the real past. To all of these peoples and in all of these situations may well be emphasised the truth of the proverb, 'He who does not look back will lose his way.'

A large part of the difficulties of the present does not arise simply from seeking new goals and new objectives, but because in the endeavour to gain these new objectives we have cut ourselves off entirely from the past.

A second point to notice is that all education is a looking backwards—not a looking backwards for the sake of the past, but a looking backwards for the sake of guidance in the future. Every academic subject is merely the substance of the experience of the race in certain of its environmental contents as the natural sciences are the substance of man's experience in dealing with the forces and phenomena of nature, and history is the substance of experience in dealing with the organised life of man in institutions. The same relative significance can be shown with every one of the subjects of the curriculum. The question arises : Why is this experience organised into curricula or subjects of study ? The answer is not simply that the individual student may learn of the past or acquire a vague substance called culture, but that, from the mastery of these subjects which means mastery of the experience of the whole race in certain specific aspects, he may guide his own conduct and perhaps help control the conduct or the activities of society as a whole.

That is, he looks back in order that he may look forward ; the proverb emphasises the truth that if he does not look back he will lose his way in trying to look forward.

There is a third aspect of this subject which is the most important of all : namely, its significance to our teaching profession. I realise that what I am to discuss is a controversial matter and that there may be many of you who do not take the same point of view that I do ; but it is a point of view that needs to be expressed. As one of your leaders, you are perhaps entitled to know where I stand.

I refer to the discussion on the very fundamental problems of freedom of teaching, or academic freedom, and permanence of tenure or security of position. There are many at the present time, whom I must recognise as reputable leaders of the profession, that are holding and expressing strange views with reference to these two topics—views which, I believe, have no historical or logical foundation, and views which, if persistently advocated, I believe will result in destroying the very objectives which these leaders profess to have in mind. I refer specifically to the interpretation of the doctrine of academic freedom as meaning that a teacher, because he is a teacher, has a right to express, to advocate and to teach any views which he may hold on any subject, irrespective of the field in which he has been authorised to instruct and in which his knowledge and efficiency have been tested ; in other words, irrespective of his authority as a teacher.

There are several very fundamental objections which may be offered against such an interpretation of this doctrine. The first of these is the historical one that in its evolution the doctrine has never before received this interpretation. The doctrine was originally formulated and was developed on the continent of Europe, particularly in Germany, to protect the teachers who had been definitely licensed to teach a given subject from the imposition of views at the behest of ecclesiastical or political authorities. Such interference of views and such defence of the teacher's right of academic freedom in the past have always related to the liberty within the subject itself in which field the teacher had demonstrated his proficiency and had been authorised by some competent authority to teach. There is just as much need at the present time for the defence of this position as there has ever been. As a matter of fact, there is probably greater need for it now—certainly than at any time within the life of teachers now living. On many hands we have

the situation of political authorities, rather than ecclesiastical authorities, invading the whole domain of teaching and dictating, not only what the teacher should instruct in his own field, but dictating doctrines entirely outside of his field which these authorities hold is the duty of the teacher to promulgate. The countries of Europe are full of such situations, many of them only too well known and too obvious.

But those of us who are Americans do not need to seek afar for illustrations which call for the application of this doctrine. Only a few years ago there was a case so notorious that it made America the laughing-stock of the world, wherein a teacher of biology was required by political authority to teach certain biological theories in which he did not believe and in which most of his colleagues in that subject also did not believe. While the teacher lost his case and position on the ground that the State had a right to determine what was taught in the State schools, yet the battle was really won for academic freedom since such imposition by political authority has not been attempted since.

In this respect it is well to point out that there is a clear and logical distinction between the right of the teacher as a citizen and the right of a teacher as a teacher.

As a citizen the teacher has a right to hold any view that he chooses with reference to economic or political questions, and he has a right to express these views so far as the citizen in general has a right to express them. Any violation or suppression of this right is a suppression of the right of a citizen. Such a right does not mean that the teacher has a right to inculcate such views, basing such instruction upon his authority as a teacher, unless he has been especially prepared in the field in question and qualified by the proper authorities and had appointment to give instruction in this field. The suppression of the attempt of teachers to give such instruction when they are not prepared and not authorised is, in my judgment, not a violation of the academic right of the freedom of teaching; and I truly believe that those who are advocating the fantastic interpretation of this doctrine to mean that a teacher has a right to teach any views regarding any subject irrespective of his preparation or authorisation are undermining the very foundations of our profession as well as of society.

This gives the importance to the consideration of the way in which this doctrine has been developed in the past, as I have indicated earlier, and indicates also this further

application of my text ; for with reference to our profession I think it is also clearly true that ' He who does not look back will lose his way.' ”

Professor A. Desclos (France) : “ No doubt it would be more consonant with the self-assertive group-individualism of the times for me to speak in French, but in deference to the spirit of this meeting and in deference to our hosts, I hope I may be allowed to express myself, as best I may, in English. This is a meeting of men and women of good-will, and group-individualism does not favour good-will.

For more than ten years the associations represented here to-night have lived in the hope of a time when good-will would resume its beneficent sway. As the years have passed, the ideal at first so close has become more elusive and more distant, and there are multitudes who have turned away from that faith, disappointed, in bitterness or disdain.

For us, ladies and gentlemen, we are not amongst those apostates. That the hopes that we cherish have receded and been obscured makes them all the dearer, and if we are but a few left to defend that cause we shall give ourselves to it with a devotion all the more profound.

To people of my age life has already become a matter of retrospect, and we can recall the time when good-will had to a large extent made the world bearable. It had brought with it liberty : liberty to pursue in peace our several avocations, to enjoy quietly the fruits of our labour ; liberty to come and go, liberty to associate with whom we pleased, liberty of thought, liberty of speech.

And hand in hand with liberty went toleration : respect of the liberty of our neighbour, even the liberty to differ, wellnigh as precious to us as our own.

Room there was in plenty for improvement ; ills remained to be cured ; weaker brothers to be eased of their over-heavy burdens ; the peril of war still loomed from time to time like a cloud in a bright sky.

But the field of education was open as never before, and so great was the faith in progress, in the possibility for good of human effort, reform was advancing at such a pace, that there seemed to be no limits to our hopes of a good time coming, no bounds to our achievements.

In this serene atmosphere of orderly progress we were brought up, and we took it for granted that this state of assured security was our natural condition, not realising that it was but the result, painfully achieved, of innumerable

efforts on the part of the idealists who, throughout the ages, had dreamed and laboured to bring it about, not realising that it was fragile and precarious.

Then came the crash ; and the world, drenched in blood and covered with ruins, was plunged once more in barbarism.

Shall we emerge again ? Shall good-will revive ?

As we look around us there appears little promise of an early renaissance.

The old savage in us that we thought to have civilised is again at large, more terrible than ever, for he has armed himself with the weapons that our material progress has placed at his disposal. And he does not range alone, he has banded himself with others of his like, he has evolved doctrinal justification for his nefarious activities, and the world is faced with an outbreak of group-individualism which threatens to overwhelm and annihilate whatever is left of the sweetness of life. Group-individualism in the form of religious fanaticism. Bodies of believers there are, so dogmatic in their faith, so satisfied with that little portion of the universal truth they have dimly apprehended, so resentful of the sectarian quarrels of long ago, that the very religion that should bind them to their fellow men provides them with a motive to employ every means, not to persuade and convert, but to oppress and slaughter, those who, in the sincerity of their hearts have accepted a different interpretation of this mysterious universe.

The old religious wars we thought so totally extinct are ready to flare up again, and only the tank and the machine-gun can keep them in abeyance.

Group-individualism in the shape of national expansion ; claiming on behalf of the teeming millions of some national unit the right to appropriate the territory or the market of some weaker neighbour.

Group-individualism under the guise of racial superiority : the colour of one's hair, the shape of one's nose, the structure of one's speech, adduced as a sufficient title to claim arrogant and brutal domination over all other men of different appearance or difference language, at home and abroad.

Group-individualism taking the name of class consciousness, that other artificial grouping of hatreds and appetites, under the banner of a mystical economic theory. By virtue of that new consciousness, the generous aspirations and efforts of social reformers towards a more equitable organisation of the production and distribution of wealth, are being impatiently pushed aside to make way for a class war, the

war of the future, not less unjust, not less bitter, not less bloody than the old national wars, which its adepts profess to denounce.

Religious fanaticism, national expansion, racial superiority, class consciousness fill the world to-day with the dangerous ambitions of their group-individualism, their lust for power, their greed for gain.

They scoff at liberty and deride persuasion ; they openly proclaim their cult of despotism and violence, and with their train of police spies, troopers and jailers and executioners they have set out to dragoon the world.

In the tumult of this brutal dictation the voice of good will may seem frail. We are here to-night to declare our passionate conviction, our firm determination, that in the end good will shall prevail, to dedicate ourselves once more to its service.

To-morrow we shall go back to the young generations more gravely conscious of the sacredness of our task. Not less faithful, no doubt, in directing their activities towards the advancement of material progress, but more attentive to awakening in their hearts the love of the graces and gentleness of life, more eager to awake in them a clear conscience of the paramount importance of the spiritual inheritance of goodwill to men, in which is our abiding hope, our steadfast faith."

Professor Ernst Jäckh (Director of the New Commonwealth Institute, London ; former President of the Hochschule für Politik, Berlin, and of the German League of Nations Union): "Most of you, even if you don't live in London as I do, know the Oxford Dictionary. Well, when the new edition came out last year, it revealed two notable facts : first of all, that there had never been so many new words to be incorporated as in the last ten years, and, secondly, that never before had so many old words acquired a new meaning.

The first point is very easily explained—I mean, the addition of new words and new concepts. It is the result of all the discoveries and inventions of science which we are apt to describe summarily—and, in my opinion, rather superficially—as 'technical progress.' There you have innovations, and indeed metamorphoses, as a result of the march of technical science. No age was ever so abundant or so perpetually surprising by its new things, since electro-dynamics and electro-magnetism have called age-old,

mythological and hitherto unknown cosmic forces into everyday use.

But how about the second fact—the change in the meaning of old words and ideas? What does this signify? Well, I suggest that it signifies no more and no less than what was predicted twenty years ago in the midst of the World War by a German philosopher, who said: ‘After this war, nothing will remain as it was before. Our whole mode of life, our economic system, our social structure, and the form of the State—everything will be new. New, too, will be the relationship of the structure of the State, world intercourse and politics, new our science, and indeed our very language.’

That was said, I repeat, in the midst of the World War and, as you see, the idea is that the World War itself is the cause and origin of this total revolution, or, I should rather say, its birth—pain and midwife as well. It is much the same as at the beginning of Christianity and of its spiritual revolution (resulting in effects which needed some generations before the mediterranean world became conscious of it) when Christ said: ‘Behold I make all things new,’ or, in the Greek words of John the Baptist: ‘metanoiete: change your mind!’ And note: that that German philosopher did not use an imperative, as did the Christian prophet. He simply stated a positive fact: ‘Everything *is* created anew. The world *is* metanoia.’

Now I want you to notice the phrase I use—the *World War*. Not the great war nor la grande guerre, but the *World War*, by which I mean the first and unique common experience in all history for the whole of humanity. Really world history in the proper sense only began in the World War: the history of humanity as an entity, earth and mankind made one. The Middle Ages stood for European unity; our era stands for world unity. The *world*, which formerly was nothing more than a geographical expression, a juxtaposition of five continents, becomes now a geo-political reality, a continuum instead of five continents, an interdependent unit, a single body, a single world, a world in which every nation is the neighbour of all the others, in which every individual factor of paramount importance is sensed by the totality of society—the process is like an electric shock making a circuit throughout the whole globe, whereby, through this communicating current, the world shrinks into a community.

Not only is the world changing in this way, and the

relations of mankind to this new world, but the same change is to be seen in the second world: *war*, and the relation of humanity to this age-old word, as old as mankind itself. Throughout history we have known *war-responsibility*, but never *war-guilt*. The very use of this word unconsciously indicates the change of attitude, a metanoia, so that war is regarded no longer as in all previous millennia as a legitimate instrument of policy, as the dynamic instrument of right, but is now stigmatised as a crime and therefore outlawed. Assuredly we must not cherish any illusions: the old mentality of previous millennia is not going to be completely done away within the space of just a single generation, any more than the revolution of Christianity was. Who could expect such a rapid human transformation or even dream of it? But in fact, with what inhuman speed mechanical matter itself has developed outside the sphere of the conscious mind and ultimately modified the human soul, swifter than any logique or rationalism, is exemplified by one of the Pacts for the Outlawry of War, the Locarno Treaty. The latter, though it is but ten years old—in other words something quite recent—has already become so out of date that the Locarno Powers are compelled to make haste and bestir themselves to render it effective through an Air Pact—a pact, mind you, which draws the natural conclusions from man's conquest of the air, i.e. a phenomenon which, ten years ago only, human imagination had not been able to apprehend, in all its electro-dynamic effects and all its politico-dynamic consequences.

And this *air* of which I am talking, hasn't it been changing its thousand-and-thousand-year-old character, even within the lifetime of our generation, the character which it has up to now had for all mankind, since the very beginning of the world, in spite of all myths of Daedalus and Icarus? Does not this whole conquest of the air mean a complete change for mankind in future and also a change of the human soul? 'Air-mindedness' is one of the new concepts and words which I took as a starting-point. But no one of us to-day can conceive what this concept will really mean when the revolution of the air, which has now only just begun—with the extraction of nitrogen from the ether, the omnipresence of broadcasting and the super-power of the stratosphere—brings forth for us fresh marvels and old powers of the cosmos. It was the Third Estate—Tiers-Etat—we say, which decided the great French Revolution. It is the revolution of this Third Element, the conquest of the air,

which will decide the future of humanity : it must create a new heaven whence comes new menace never before heard of and at the same time a new earth, gradually closing up and seeking collective protection.

For *security* in the old sense no longer exists either. The third dimension, the air, is, physically and by its potentialities, of a superior order to the dimensions of land and sea. It is the whole of which land and sea are but parts, subordinate parts. The forces of the ether extend their effects on every side, in every direction, they are boundless—land and sea forces are partial and finite. Why, the historical impetus and challenge contained in the phrase : ‘rule the waves’ is dislocated ; its axis is uprooted from the surface of the sea to the cosmic atmosphere. The old idea of security and sovereignty becomes obsolete—a new collective security becomes vital.

A presage of these and other new facts is afforded by the background whence springs the institution of the League of Nations aiming at a collective system. You know that, and why its present structure represents an embryonic condition, while its future evolution, if it is to do the work of prevention rather than of cure, must result in the conclusions which have been set forth by The New Commonwealth Society in a dual programme, namely (1) peaceful change of intolerable conditions by means of compulsory arbitration in accordance with equity which is to remove the antinomy between law and justice, and (2) preparation and institution of an international policing force which places, if necessary, might behind right. This sounds very simple, but it is in fact very complicated. Therefore *The New Commonwealth Institute* (Thorney House, Westminster, London) is organising research work, to be carried out by experts and by the New Commonwealth Sections which are active now in Great Britain, France, Germany, Holland, Sweden and the U.S.A.

psychology. This new fact of the air, even if it is changed from an insuperable obstacle, as it formerly was, into the swiftest instrument of intercourse, does not mean a levelling of the individual nations ; on the contrary, by their greater proximity it makes them all the more conscious of their now even audible differences, of their rooted metaphysical originality, no less than of their growing physical dependence. The more progress is made in the super-national conquest of nature, and the closer the neighbourliness of the nations in terms of space, the deeper will be our consciousness of the national differences of the peoples and of their characters, and the more we can appreciate their multifarious qualities and variety. From both points of view, the national character and the international interdependence come to be taken as a matter of course, as balancing factors compensating for one another.

But that is enough about these one or two examples of changes of meaning of words and of ideas—world, war, air, security, sovereignty—and the change they stand for in the relations between national and international consciousness through primal supernational forces of which the only novelty is that we now become conscious of them and operate them.

What, after all, is the common factor behind all these and similar changes ? A new relationship, a new relativity which is the consequence of the so-called new 'technical progress.' Here I must say why I always hesitate to use this phrase. It is because, in spite of all the progress of science, despite all our still increasing mastery of nature, the dæmonic sway over the world remains unbroken, perhaps indeed enhanced ; in other words, *technocracy is fundamentally theocracy*.

A new relationship of space and time, more or less annihilating one another, is one of the main characteristics of the revolution of the world, this new world, this new era, whose birth-pangs we are experiencing. This new era is fundamentally different from what it was before. I say 'fundamentally'—totally—because there is a new relationship coming about in every sphere : in metaphysics the theory of relativity as in physics the quantum theory—between nations and the world as between people and governments, between politics and economics as between capital and labour, between the generations as between the sexes, between body and soul, conscious and unconscious, in a new psychology and a new biology, in art and in all sciences, and

so on. In the words of the German philosopher Max Scheler: 'The order of magnitude to which the far-reaching change of things and men belongs, whose beginning we are now witnessing, means not only a change of things, of circumstances, of institutions, of basic ideas and basic forms of art and of nearly all science; it is a change of the human being himself, of the quality of his internal structure, compact as it is of body, soul and spirit. It is not only a change of his actual being, but a change in the standards by which he is measured.' Everywhere you will find a new relation, a new relativity, a new relationism. The facts are known: what is wanted in a creative holism, a conscious mind.

In other words, you who are here, whether you are teaching physics or geography, metaphysics or law, philosophy or languages, history, technical science or whatever it is, you will find from every department of science the way to the totality of our world revolution and its metanoia. That is why no profession is so sacred, so endowed with privileges and with responsibility as yours, no organisation so important as yours, the World Federation of Education Associations. It is in your hands to determine whether the new generation becomes conscious of the new world, of its blessings and its pains—for indeed pains become blessings if their meaning is properly understood, and they are accepted as such. In the simplest of terms, it rests with you whether the new generation leads a conscious life, or simply vegetates. 'He that hath ears to hear, let him hear. He that hath eyes to see, let him see.' It is up to you and to your world federation to make the 'world' really a world, and to prepare yourselves and this new world for a federation of self-conscious nations, a world federation, a New Commonwealth!"

S. de Vries (Holland): "When I for the first time represented my own Union at an Annual Meeting of the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales at Scarborough, I had good fortune in coming to, what I should like to call, an historical Conference.

What was the occasion?

An incident which had not occurred for many years took place there. The President of the Board of Education, Sir Charles Trevelyan, came from London to Scarborough, to prove, as he said, that the President of the Board of Education is more than a signature under a bill, that he is a

living creature, and that he wished to come into personal contact with his teachers.

Dear English colleagues, I, a foreigner, loved him for that, and my thoughts went back to my own country, where our President of the Board of Education is only a signature under a bill, at least, we never see him at our meetings, we only get once a month a new salary-cut !

On that occasion, at Scarborough, as always, when teachers come together, we spoke about salary-cuts. In my address I told something about my own country. In those days we had a kind and noble President of our Board of Education, but each time he tried to do something for us teachers there seemed to be one stronger than he, who pulled him by his sleeve. That mightier being, our Finance Minister, who never came upon the scene, I called in my address 'the silent actor of our drama.' And Sir Charles, coming after me to address Conference, honoured me by picking up that figure from my speech, to tell his teachers that the 'silent actor in their drama' had changed and the new Chancellor of the Exchequer was willing to better their position.

I still hear the rattling of the applause filling the concert hall. I, of course, applauded too, but also thanked Sir Charles for his attention, drawn to the words of an unknown teacher, coming from the other side of the North sea.

But was that the reason why Sir Charles came to Scarborough. Not at all. He came, as he said, from London to Scarborough, to bring his teachers a message.

If I understood well, it was difficult in those days, to get well-qualified teachers to go to remote parts of your country. At least he warmly encouraged young teachers to accept such places. He also spoke of villages, blackened by the smoke of chimneys, of children, living in slums, and he besought his teachers to be courageous enough to go to such places, where—as he said—the teacher often is 'the only bearer of civilisation.' The higher posts, he added, they would attain to later on.

Colleagues, to those 'only bearers of civilisation,' to those humble servants of mankind, I wish to draw for a couple of minutes your attention.

Years ago, in my own period of young enthusiasm, I read a noble English book by Thomas Carlyle : On Heroes, Hero-worship and the Heroic in History.

Ah ! happy days, in which our youth has its heroes, lives by heroism !

I believed in Carlyle's heroes ! The hero as Divinity :

Odin ; as Prophet : Mahomet ; as Poets : Dante, Shakespeare ; as Priests : Luther, Knox ; as Men of Letters : Johnson, Rousseau, Burns, as King : Cromwell, Napoleon.

But did Carlyle live to-day I think he would add a new hero to this list. Our democratic century has its own hero. The peoples of our days have created a new hero of their own. Go to Paris, on the Place de l'Etoile, under the Arc de Triomphe, go to Brussels, come to London to the Cenotaph, and you will find the new hero.

His name ? No name ! Unknown to History ! He that sleeps there his last sleep, has no name. He is a symbol. A symbol of the masses, going to death singing, or, perhaps, murmuring, driven into death. A symbol, 'expressing public feeling, to represent an Imperial Grave of all those citizens of the Empire, of every creed and rank, who gave their lives in the War.'

Honour to those who gave their lives for Right's sake !

But I wish to draw your attention to yet another hero, not slain in the battlefields, but fighting his struggle for life to the end of his days ; likewise unknown to history as that soldier of whom I have spoken, but in no wise honoured, not in the least !

May the masses honour their unknown soldier. We, teachers of the world, we will also honour that unknown teacher, going to the remotest places in our countries as 'the only bearers of civilisation.'

Is it of more use to *die* for a country than to live for it ? to die for the honour of a people than to live and bring civilisation there where there is none ? to stride out, sword in hand, than to bring up our children, our *Spes Patriæ*, to goodwill and right understanding ?

In my opinion the latter is a greater hero.

Let us see what these colleagues of ours, these humble servants of Mankind, these thousands and thousands of quiet workers for peace and happiness and civilisation all over the world, let us see what they are and what they are struggling to attain.

What are they ? Let me express it in a symbol.

All of us know that wonderful statue of the Danish sculptor Thorwaldsen in the Fraunkirche at Köbenhavn, that world-famous marble statue of Christ. Coming into that church, you find in the background, before a light terra-cotta niche, that marvellous marble human image of Christ, stretching His hands, His inviting, beautiful hands, stretching them, full of love to all those who are seeking consolation and aid.

My colleagues, are not these thousands and thousands of our teachers, living and teaching in the remotest places, humble servants of mankind, are they not also stretching their loving hands to all those little ones who so much need a little bit of civilisation as the first thing necessary towards the slightest progress in life !

Are not these thousands and thousands of our forgotten colleagues, men and women with their hearts burning with love, helping children and parents before, during, and after school time, with all the spirit and knowledge they possess are not they, living in poverty, real heroes, and in the roll of heroes the only ones forgotten ?

How poor, but, how heroic is the life they live !

Their influence reminds me of that little gem of Shelley's poetry, ' The Sensitive Plant.'

' A sensitive Plant in a garden grew,
And the young winds fed it with silver dew,
And it opened its fan-like leaves to the light,
And closed them beneath the kisses of night.

And the Spring arose on the garden fair,
Like the Spirit of Love felt everywhere ;
And each flower and herb on Earth's dark breast
Rose from the dreams of its wintry rest.'

In the great garden of Mankind, where, as the flowers turn to the sun for light, so do the children of the poor turn for understanding love to the humble village teacher, who rises as a Spirit of Love, awakening from the dreams of their wintry rest the souls of the little ones, refreshing them with the dew of his loving heart, nourishing them by thoughts and feelings of Brotherhood and World-peace.

If there be anyone capable of producing a new world, inspired by a new mind, it can only be this humble servant of Mankind, this courageous teacher, found the world over, Sir Charles Trevelyan's ' only bearer of civilisation.'

Let us, teachers of the world, let us erect, in our hearts and minds, a monument in honour of that Teacher, of him,

The only one, forgotten in the roll of Heroes."

Dr. M. Oshima (Japan) : " The present-day educational system of Japan was inaugurated in the fifth year of Meiji (1872) in consonance with the spirit of the Meiji Restoration and was modelled after the educational systems existent in some of the Western countries of that time.

It goes without saying that the elementary school is the most important part of the entire system, as it is the one great element which contributes really to the building up of a foundation for the education of the people, and the fact that six years of attendance at elementary schools is compulsory for children who are called upon to attend school from their sixth year, speaks volumes for the importance that is attached to this part of education.

In the sixth year of Meiji (1873), 39.90 per cent. of boys and 15.14 per cent. of girls of school-age were attending school, whereas from 1917 onwards this percentage has risen to over 99 per cent., and at present 99.57 per cent. of school-age children are receiving elementary school education, leaving but an insignificantly small number of them illiterate.

The consensus of opinion among the educators of the country, however, is that six years of compulsory education is inadequate, and that it should be extended by two years more. This plan, however, has not materialised yet because of the large expense involved.

Recent statistics indicate that some 978,000 children graduate every year from the elementary schools of the country. Of these 230,000 or 24 per cent. go to the secondary schools of various types, and 40 per cent. to the higher elementary schools for a special two years' course. The rest of the children, at twelve years of age, constituting a large army, either stay at home to help in domestic affairs or work in shops and factories.

Further education of these children also is not neglected, and they are encouraged to attend special night classes known as the Young Men's Training Schools for four or five years till they come of age. These classes are conducted usually two or three nights a week and the subjects offered are so adjusted as to meet local requirements such as vocational courses on agriculture, industry, commerce, fishery, domestic science, sewing and the like, besides courses on morals, civics, physical training and military drill, all of which aim at the attainment of a higher standard of citizenship. This system is of comparatively recent development, and is more of a training in social aspects of life than in intellectual education.

As these students are occupied during day time, neither the methods of teaching employed nor the subjects taught are the same as in the ordinary schools, and usually a considerable freedom in the selection of subjects is allowed to

the students. Most of the elementary and Young Men's Training Schools are public institutions and are well subsidised by the national Government.

In the secondary schools there are special institutions of agriculture, industry and commerce, besides the middle school, most of which require five years. Boys and girls are educated separately. Twenty years ago there were 1,313 such secondary schools in the country, whereas to-day there are 2,545 with 990,091 students. Inasmuch as there is a strong demand for extending the period of compulsory education from six to eight years, as already mentioned, it is natural that, to-day, many people regard secondary schools almost necessary for imparting liberal education. But when the Young Men's Training Schools are improved as they will eventually be, some of these people are bound to view them in a different light.

Immediately after the secondary schools, there are the High schools and colleges with various special courses to meet the requirements of the times. Graduates of the Middle and other secondary schools are eligible for enrolment in the High schools after having passed the entrance examinations. But as a matter of fact the greatest majority of the students entering them are the graduates of Middle schools who intend to continue their studies further on by entering the universities. These institutions, as such, are regarded in general more as preparatory schools for the universities.

Most of the graduates of the special secondary schools prefer to start their careers in the world soon after graduation. The course at the special colleges extends usually to a term of three years, although there are some which offer a four-year course. It is needless to state that professional and technical training is given in these institutions, and it is indubitable that the various technical schools in the country are making no small contribution towards the building up of our modern industries. There is also a number of colleges for women only.

The primary object of the higher school is to furnish a higher liberal education, but in practice it is functioning at present merely as a preparatory school for the universities. This is a three-year term institution, and those who have completed four years of the middle school course are eligible for admission.

There is a number of seven-year term schools of the same standing, which is a combination of the Middle and the High schools. This system of high school education is

We shall now deal briefly with the training of the teachers.

For the training of teachers for elementary schools, every prefecture maintains men's and women's Normal schools. Students of these schools are composed of two different types, namely (a) those who enter after finishing two years of the Higher elementary school course, and spend five years there for special education and training; and (b) the graduates of the secondary schools who are required to spend two years only. The latter type is of comparatively recent development, but the prevailing opinion among the educators is that this should be the only class of students to be admitted in these Normal schools in future, because they have a broader outlook of society, an element quite essential for training better qualified teachers.

For the training of teachers for the secondary schools, there are two Higher Normal Schools each for men and women in the country. Students eligible for these institutions are graduates of the Normal and secondary schools, and admitted by examination. It requires four years to go through a course of training in these schools, but the graduates, however, are not enough in numbers to fill the positions available, and qualified graduates of universities and colleges have to be employed to fill up the other vacancies. The present system is bound to undergo a radical reform, and it is only a question of time when the university graduates only will be qualified to teach in the secondary schools.

So much for the training of the teachers. *En passant*, a few words should, however, be added here regarding the pre-school and other educational systems. Many kindergartens and day-nurseries are found all over the country, especially in the cities, the tendency being for these facilities to become more popular. As to the training of good citizens, we have already said something about it in connection with the Young Men's Training Schools, perhaps the most important factor in this respect. We cannot afford to overlook, however, the Boy Scouts, and the Young Men's Societies organised on national lines and doing excellent work under able leadership.

Among other organisations there are Federations for Vocational Guidance, Workers' Education and Cultural bodies spread over the entire country. All these are private organisations, but they are all well co-ordinated with headquarters in the capital, and are subsidised by the Government.

Institutions like public libraries, fine arts and natural science museums, botanical and zoological gardens are found throughout the country as in all other countries of the world. Furthermore, in order to promote international friendship through the diffusion of cultural understanding, the Society for International Cultural Relations, whose primary object is to introduce our culture abroad from the historical standpoint, has recently been founded.

The foregoing brief survey of our educational system, crude as it may be, will suffice to prove that we have made remarkable progress in this field during some seventy years since the Meiji Restoration. The very fact that the country with over two thousand years of history and traditions had been a hermit nation or remained dormant for about three hundred years during the Tokugawa regime, and has now come to stand on the same level with all others in the comity of civilised nations in so short a period of time, should be a sufficient inducement to attract attention from outsiders. It is, nevertheless, an impossible task to present anything like a comprehensive development of the system in so short a space.

The underlying principle of our educational system was first defined clearly by the Great Emperor Meiji in one of the five articles of the Imperial Oath proclaimed in 1871, wherein he had pointed out that we should endeavour to 'preserve the old and adopt the new.' Then, in 1890, he restated clearly the policy of our educational system in the Imperial Rescript on Education, that it should recognise the time-honoured spirit upon which the nation is founded as irrevocable, adhere to the standard of ethical virtues established, and comply with the principles universally accepted in the comity of nations.

Thus the fundamental corner-stone of our educational system was laid down long ago, but we are most seriously concerned now with the unfinished task lying before us—fulfilment of the object of true education through a better system, improved subjects for teaching, and more efficient methods of teaching in these days of rapid changes in thought and science."

Malcolm Mackinnon (Scotland): "It was really our General Secretary, Mr. Henderson, who should have spoken here to-night, but as he has been called elsewhere, I am taking his place. We are both good Scots, I am sure, but I shall shoulder the blame for what is said now. I don't

know what his theme was going to be, but mine was made for me as I wandered this afternoon through some of those lovely college quadrangles which almost take the breath away with their sheer beauty. In the grounds of Magdalen College, in particular, I lingered on, just standing and staring, and letting impressions flow in to my passive mind. When I tried to recall what had happened, I found, strangely enough, that it was the magnificent herbaceous border along the outer side of the quadrangle that made the first impression. The flowers in themselves were not particularly rare, nor in that state of unnatural perfection one sees at a flower show. We have the same flowers in Scotland—lobelias, carnations, dahlias, Michaelmas-daisies, gladioli, and so on—and we have them arranged also in herbaceous borders—but somehow that particular border had an appeal that was quite absent from other borders of the same kind. I began wondering idly why this should be—perhaps the Scot's passion for the reason why. And I was soon convinced that it was not the flowers in themselves but their background and their setting that explained their appeal. They were just right. They were a typically and an essentially English—and I don't mean British—touch in a whole scene that was typically and essentially English. Their colourful margin was a perfect border to the cool, verdant background of wooded park. Everything fitted in—it was all of a piece, a distinctive English piece, not to be found anywhere else in the whole world.

Now we in Scotland are the most modest of people (as you see from our place in this programme). We *are* proud of our native land, and particularly of its beautiful scenery. Our poets have sung of this beauty, and their song has found an answering chord in the hearts of many nations. But that beauty is utterly different from the beauty of Oxford. Comparison would be entirely beside the point; futile. Each in its own way is a thing to cherish, to remember gratefully in the heat and the dust of the everyday world.

I suppose it was a natural enough transition to find my thoughts straying far beyond herbaceous borders or purple hills to other national differences, and their place in the scheme of things. Have they a place, I found myself asking first of all, very conscious of the severe inflammation of the national spirit from which the world is suffering so grievously to-day. Would it not be better to even out the ups and downs of nationalism to a flat, level plain of cosmopolitanism, to forget that we are Scots or English or Irish, and become

citizens of the world? It was far too big a theme to work out to any final conclusion, particularly in such a glorious afternoon, but my thoughts *did* settle down to one or two resting-places at least, stages perhaps on what would be a very exciting mental journey.

The first stage was a kind of clearing house, where things had to be sorted out into two main divisions. In the first room were placed such subjects as war, economics, tariffs, history. That is a room bristling with high explosives, and it is the torch of narrow nationalism that is in grave danger of setting off what might well be a world-wide cataclysm. On subjects like these national thinking is a national danger. The whole emphasis must be on the *international* outlook. As your President so cogently pointed out yesterday, that is asking the nations of the world to alter their mental habits—habits that are not only in the mind but in the *blood*, inherited through generations of peoples that have been thinking nationally in every aspect of life. It is a tremendous task, requiring boundless faith, sheer hard work, never-failing courage in the midst of grievous disappointments. I look to this Conference, and I am sure I do not look in vain, for a renewal of faith and a strengthening of belief when the individual feels so puny and helpless in the storm-tossed world of the day.

But in concluding, ladies and gentlemen, let me glance into that other room, that much pleasanter room where national things are stored—in plain words, those infinitely varied national heritages which can be enjoyed to the full by the whole world.

I am back now at the quadrangle of Magdalen College, the soft murmur of the Cherwell, the deer park in the background.

I am thinking also of the purple hills of my native country, in their full glory at this early autumn season.

In this room are representatives from many nations of the world.

There is not one of those far-scattered lands but has its own beauties, its own appeal.

There is no competition here as between country and country. The more distinctive and the more national each country is, the greater is the variety and spice of life for the whole world.

But, after all, physical scenery is but the background.

There is a national note and a national genius in the world of the arts and in the general culture.

In this spacious realm it is peculiarly true that

They little know of England
Who only England know,

and you can substitute for England the name of your own country. When the world recovers from its present fit of madness, the nations will have a chance of bringing their distinctive gifts to the commonwealth of man. One will bring the inspired strains of music; another, the gift of song; a third, the achievements of science; a fourth, eloquence and wit. You can extend the list for yourselves, ladies and gentlemen, extend it almost indefinitely until you have a store of material wealth and of cultural wealth more than enough to satisfy the needs and the yearnings of body and mind and soul. I am not afraid of nationalism in the realms of culture and art and natural beauty. I welcome it; it gives colour and variety where cosmopolitanism gives only dreary monotony. In war and economics and so on—the world outlook first. In things of the soul and spirit—the world second, and my country first. Then, as Shakespeare put it, if we are true to ourselves we cannot then be false to any man."



[Photo Alden (Oxford)]

EXAMINATION SCHOOLS, NORTH FRONT

THIRD GENERAL MEETING

Friday, 16th August, 8 p.m.

Place of Meeting : Sheldonian Theatre

FAREWELL MEETING

The World Conference came to an end with a farewell meeting, over which Mr. Fred Mander (President, W.F.E.A.) presided. A feature of the meeting was the series of speeches by twenty national delegates, who paid glowing tributes to the success of the Conference and to the hospitality which they had enjoyed from both city and University.

Mr. Mander said : " We can all feel we have had a very happy and successful time. But in fairness to the organisers of the Conference and in fairness to the University and City of Oxford I feel bound to make a statement the necessity for which I regret. The Organising Committee had organised the Synchronised Conferences, and the activities of those Conferences had been many and various. They were all set out in the official programme of the Congress, and they included an educational exhibition, meetings and discussions of many kinds. But I have noted with much regret that they have been by no means the only activities that have been carried on in Oxford during the week. There have been other conferences, other activities, other exhibitions, and the distribution and sale of literature at the doors of their meeting places, entirely unrelated to the work of the Synchronised Conferences. I am sorry to say that certain agencies, the nature of which can be easily guessed, appear, quite deliberately in my view, to have made an attempt to use the organisation of the Synchronised Conferences in order to disseminate propaganda in the city which the organisers of the Conference could not recognise or approve in any way whatsoever. I wish the citizens to know that the organisers of the Conferences were responsible for the Synchronised Conferences and for those Conferences alone. On their behalf I must disclaim any responsibility for the

other unrelated activities and propaganda which unfortunately have been carried on in Oxford during the progress of the Congress. I am very sorry to have to make the pointed reference, but it is necessary in the interests of the good name of our international associations and in fairness to the citizens of Oxford.

This is the first occasion in this country when three great international educational bodies have come together in the same place at the same time. They came to Oxford in search of unity, with the strong desire to find a common basis for co-ordinated effort in the future. During the last two days agreements have been reached between the World Federation and the International Federation of Teachers' Associations on the one hand, and between the World Federation and the International Federation of Associations of Secondary School Teachers on the other hand, and those agreements are of such a nature that we may all leave Oxford feeling that our gathering here has more than justified itself. We have found, if not full unity in the form of amalgamation, at any rate the first steps towards such unity."

Mr. Mander then called on the following international foreign delegates, each of whom paid a farewell tribute to Oxford and the Conference: G. R. Parker (I.F.A.S.T.), G. Lapierre (I.F.T.A.), Professor Paul Monroe (America), Miss Jenny Wahlman (Sweden), Alberto Lopez Casero (Spain), M. Tang (China), A. Gamal Eldin (Egypt), Agnes Samuelson (America), Paul Mägraken (Estonia), C. Garnier (France), G. G. Kanetkar (Jubbulpore, India), Dr. Jaromir Fiala (Czechoslovakia), Dr. H. Scherpbier (Holland), M. Boulanger (Belgium), Aeee Blue Eagle (Oklahoma), Dr. Masonori Oshima (Japan), Harry Charlsworth (Canada).

At the close of the speeches the Chairman drew attention to the work of the two chief organisers of the Congress, Messrs. Sydney Blake and J. W. L. Symes. Mr. Blake, he said, was a prince of organisers, and he paid tribute to the work that had been done by Mr. Symes.

Mr. Blake, who was received with prolonged applause, said that a great deal of the success depended upon the loyal support he had received from his staff colleagues and from the local council. The W.F.E.A., he said, was not rich in money, but it had ample resources in devotion and service.

Mr. Symes also responded.



ACEE BLUE EAGLE

GENERAL ASSEMBLY (W.F.E.A.)

FRIDAY, 16TH AUGUST, 2.0 P.M.—4.30 P.M.

Place of Meeting : THE UNION SOCIETY HALL.

Presiding : F. MANDER.

The President, in declaring the assembly open, explained that the only persons entitled to take part in the discussion of the business or to record their votes were those who held credentials from the Credentials Committee. Other registered delegates were very welcome, but they must understand they were there as observers and listeners only.

The President said it was appropriate that the first few moments should be devoted to paying a tribute of respect to the memory of their departed Secretary-General, Dr. Augustus O. Thomas. The loss to the World Federation was a very grievous one indeed, and it was not necessary, in a gathering of so many of his friends and colleagues who knew him so well, to enlarge at length on the many services which he gave to the Federation, which, at any rate in the later years, became his life's work. The President felt he had not the words in which to express a fully adequate tribute to the late Dr. Thomas, but he was going to read to them a tribute which had been handed to him that morning, written by a member of the Conference who wished to remain anonymous, and which expressed his own sentiments and those of the whole Board of Directors, to whom he had the honour of reading it. The President then read the tribute, as follows :

“ Some twelve years ago a great man put into concrete form in this World Federation of Education Associations, in co-operation with other world-minded citizens from many nations, his dream of a world-wide educational organisation for the promotion of international understanding, goodwill and peace. That great man was Dr. Augustus Thomas. For eight years he served with distinction and honour as its first President, and for four additional years as its first Secretary-General. Whilst in the midst of his labours he was suddenly called on—into the realm of silence, leaving behind him a voice that shall never be stilled, for his great work will speak for ever to men and nations, repeating the

words of the Master Teacher, 'Peace on earth, goodwill towards men.' If Dr. Thomas could speak he would say to his colleagues: 'Mourn not for me but carry on the great work we have begun until peace shall reign throughout the world.' In deep sorrow we lay upon the altar of his memory forget-me-nots of honour and love."

The members of the Assembly stood in silence as a token of respect to the memory of Dr. Thomas.

The President stated that it was the intention of the Directors that a copy of the above tribute, with a suitable accompanying letter, should be sent to Mrs. Thomas.

The President then referred to the work of Dr. Charles H. Williams, who, he believed, from the inception of the World Federation had acted as its Secretary, occupying that position throughout in an honorary capacity. During the biennium which had passed since the Dublin Conference, circumstances had arisen which had made it impossible for Dr. Williams to carry on the duties, and shortly before the present Conference he had intimated that he would not be able to accept reappointment. He (the President) was sure that the members of the Assembly joined with him in regretting the resignation of Dr. Williams, and would desire him to send a message of greeting and an expression of gratitude for his services on behalf of the Federation. This was agreed.

The President then called attention to the extremely difficult position created by the sudden death of Dr. Thomas. Dr. J. W. Crabtree (Secretary Emeritus of the National Education Association of America), stepped into the breach, and with the concurrence of the Directors he was appointed Acting Secretary-General, and carried out his duties to their complete satisfaction up to the eve of the Conference. He felt they owed Dr. Crabtree a very special debt of gratitude for coming to the rescue of the Federation, and suggested that a suitable letter of appreciation and thanks should be forwarded to him. The Delegate Assembly concurred.

Financial Statements

In the absence of the Treasurer, Dr. Hardy, the President called upon Mr. H. N. Penlington to submit the Treasurer's report.

Mr. Penlington accordingly moved the reception of the following Statement:

Receipts and Disbursements :

RECEIPTS.

CASH IN BANKS, 16TH JUNE, 1933.

Imperial Bank of Canada ..	\$100.19	
National Metropolitan Bank of Washington	223.30	\$323.49
	<hr/>	
Fees	\$8,727.22	
Goodwill Memberships	742.00	
Sale of Publications	75.24	
Prize Money (Mrs. Van Loan) ..	\$150.00	
Less : Prizes awarded	140.00	10.00
Recovery from Commercial Na- tional Bank	<hr/>	24.33
Foreign Exchange	8.89	
	<hr/>	9,587.68
		<hr/>
		9,911.17
		<hr/>
		<hr/>

16th June, 1933, to 30th June, 1935

DISBURSEMENTS.

Honorarium—Secretary-General	\$3,200.00	
Salary—Office Secretary	2,337.50	
	<hr/>	5,537.50
Clerical Help—Various Offices ..		605.30
Auditing Fee (one year)		10.00
Indemnity Bond for Treasurer ..		50.00
Travelling Expenses—Conference at Dublin	709.92	
Travelling Expenses Sundry ..	160.00	
	<hr/>	869.92
Printing, Stationery and Supplies		789.00
Postage, Telephone and Tele- grams		493.03
National Educational Association, Supplies, Services, etc. ..		736.12
Storage on Proceedings		120.50
Sundry		46.48
		<hr/>
		9,257.85
CASH IN BANKS, 30TH JUNE, 1935.		
National Metropolitan Bank of Washington	103.94	
Imperial Bank of Canada ..	549.38	
	<hr/>	653.32
		<hr/>
		9,911.17
		<hr/>

RECONCILIATION OF BALANCE,
16TH JUNE, 1933.

Balance, 15th June, 1933, per statement as at that date ..	1,478.74
<i>Less</i> : Cheques issued prior to 15th June, 1933, for Travelling Expenses for 1933-34 Account	1,200.00
	<hr/> 278.74
<i>Add</i> : Cash transferred from Toronto prior to 15th June, 1933, deposited in Washington after that date ..	44.75
	<hr/>
Cash in Banks, 16th June, 1933, as above	<u>323.49</u>

AUDITOR'S CERTIFICATE.

I have examined the books of the World Federation of Education Associations from 16th June, 1933, to 30th June, 1935, and report that the above statements of Receipts and Disbursements is in agreement with the books and bank statements of the Society for the period examined.

BLAKE A. COCKBURN,
Chartered Accountant

Toronto, 12th July, 1935.

Report of Auditing Committee

The President explained that the Directors had thought it desirable to set up an Auditing Committee to present a report to the Delegate Assembly. Mr. G. Faulds (Chairman of the Auditing Committee) presented the following Report :

ATTENDANCES

11TH AUGUST.—Messrs. Faulds (Educational Institute of Scotland) in the Chair, Longshore (National Educational Association, U.S.A.) and Baxter (National Union of Teachers of England and Wales).

12TH AUGUST.—Messrs. Faulds (in the Chair) and Baxter.

Unfortunately Dr. Hardy, Treasurer of the Federation, has not been able to attend this Conference. In his absence, especially as the Secretary-General has died and the Secretary to the Directors has resigned, the difficulties of the Committee were considerably increased.

Neither the books of the Treasurer nor those of the Secretary were available and could not, therefore, be examined. A statement of the Treasurer, accompanied by the Auditor's certificate of a Chartered Accountant, was, however, present, and this was carefully considered by the members of the Committee.

The following statement shows receipts and disbursements for the period :

CURRENT ACCOUNT.

RECEIPTS.		DISBURSEMENTS.	
Balance brought forward, 1931-33 ..	1323.49	For Biennial period ..	9789.61
Fees	8727.22	For previous period ..	468.24
Memberships ..	742.00		
Publications ..	75.24		
Miscellaneous ..	43.22	Credit Balance ..	653.32
	<u>10911.17</u>		<u>10911.17</u>

BALANCE SHEET.

ASSETS.		LIABILITIES.	
Cash in Bank ..	653.32	Herman-Jordan	
Amounts outstanding	50.00	Comm. Fund ..	10.00
		Van Loan Prize Fund	10.00
		Balance due American	
		Express Co. ..	24.17
		Balance due Judd &	
		Detweller (Printing)	550.75
		Credit Balance ..	108.40
	<u>703.32</u>		<u>703.32</u>

This Credit Balance, small as it is, would not have been in existence had the President, Mr. Mander, charged for the necessary clerical assistance, the Directors' estimate for which was 200 dollars. The total paid in salaries is only 6,142.80 dollars, of which 3,200 dollars was an honorarium to the late Secretary-General and 2,337.50 dollars to the Office Secretary.

There were no items in reference to the cost of the actual arrangements of the Dublin Conference, as the Irish National Teachers' Organisation made itself responsible for that expenditure. The cost of the actual arrangements of each of the Conferences except Geneva has been met by the home Association. Efforts have been made to obtain a clear definite statement of the financial position created by the Geneva Conference. These have not been successful, and

we suggest that no further action can advantageously be taken in reference thereto, and that no mention should be made of them in future financial statements.

The income from fees for the past two years is 1,032.98 dollars less than that for the years 1931-33. The Committee was informed that this was due partly to the passing of the Secretary-General and partly to the circumstances created by the financial crisis of the past two years, which prevented some Associate Members paying their subscriptions.

One item, 120 dollars for the storage of Reports of the Toronto Conference—the Committee suggested should be made non-recurring by the disposal or destruction of the Reports.

It is obvious that the work of the Federation must be handicapped by the lack of funds. Certainly one aim of the Federation—the collection and dissemination of information to its constituent Associations—cannot be achieved unless and until an increased income is secured.

The members of the Committee thought the Auditor's Report attached to the Treasurer's Report would have had greater value had it been more specific in its nature. In its present form it appears to be a certificate of accuracy of the addition and subtraction of figures.

(Signed) G. FAULDS
(*Chairman*).

Mr. T. J. O'Connell referred to the statement that the Irish National Teachers' Organisation had made itself responsible for the expenditure in connection with the Dublin Conference, and explained that this could not have been done to anything like the extent it was had it not been for generous contributions from the sister organisations in England and Scotland.

On the motion of Mr. Penlington, seconded by Mr. Holmes (N.E.A.), the Statements were adopted.

Report of Credentials Committee

Dr. Agnes Samuelson, for Mr. Dan Edwards, presented the following Report :

A meeting of the Credentials Committee was held at the Randolph Hotel on Tuesday, 13th August, 1935, when there were present—

Miss M. A. Oxley (Assistant Mistresses Association).

Dr. Agnes Samuelson (National Education Association).
 Mr. D. J. Kelleher (Irish National Teachers' Organisation).
 Mr. A. C. C. Harvey (All-India Federation).
 Mr. D. Edwards (N.U.T.).

Mr. D. Edwards (Vice-President of the N.U.T.) was appointed Chairman.

On the information presented the Committee examined the claims of the full members for representation in the General Assembly, and allotted the following number of seats to each Association :

All-India Federation	3
American Federation of Teachers of French ..	1
Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools	5
Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools	7
Headmasters' Association	4
Headmistresses' Association	1
Aundh State Teachers' Association	3
Canadian Teachers' Federation	12
Council of Principals of Training Colleges ..	1
Educational Institute of Scotland	11
Institute of Handicraft Teachers	3
Irish National Teachers' Organisation	7
Japanese Education Association	5
National Council of Geography Teachers ..	4
National Council of Teachers of English ..	1
National Education Association of U.S. ..	50
National Federation of Modern Language Teachers	2
National Union of Teachers	50
National Federation of Teachers of Philippine Islands	1
American Federation of Teachers	4

This number of tickets was sent to a representative of each full member association, together with a suggestion that other accredited delegates of affiliated organisations would be admitted to the unreserved portion of the Hall on production of their registration card.

(Signed) D. EDWARDS

(Chairman).

Mr. F. G. Pearce (All India Federation of Education Associations) inquired on what basis the seats were allotted, as he noticed that while his own Federation had three, the same number had been allotted to the Aundh State Teachers' Association, the membership of which was very much smaller.

Mr. A. E. Henshall (Secretary to Directors) explained that in the absence of the Treasurer the Committee was placed at a disadvantage, and could only allocate the seats on the information received in regard to payment of dues so far as it could be remembered. If on reference to the books any adjustment was found to be necessary, this would be made in regard to future Conferences.

Mr. Blackwood also raised a question as to the allocation of seats to the E.I.S., and was informed that this coincided with the number of official delegates whose names had been supplied.

The report was adopted.

Report of Delegate Assembly at Dublin

Dr. Lamkin presented the Report of the Delegate Assembly held at Dublin on 4th August, 1933, as contained in the printed Report of the Proceedings of the Fifth Biennial Conference, published by the courtesy of the Irish National Teachers' Organisation. He moved approval of the Report as a correct record of the proceedings.

The motion was *Carried*.

Report of Nominating Committee

MR. J. W. H. BROWN (PRESIDENT, NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS) submitted the report, as follows :

A meeting of the Nominating Committee was held at the Randolph Hotel on Thursday morning, 15th August, at which the following were present :

Dr. H. L. Smith (National Education Association, U.S.A.).

Mr. H. L. Constable (Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters).

Mr. D. F. Courell (Irish National Teachers' Organisation).

Miss A. R. Gray (Canadian Teachers' Federation).
 Mr. M. MacKinnon (Educational Institute of Scotland).
 Mr. S. Kodama (Japanese Education Association).
 Mr. J. W. H. Brown (President, National Union of Teachers).

Mr. J. W. H. Brown was appointed to the Chair.

A list of the retiring Directors was presented to the Committee, and as no other nominations were made the Committee resolved :

1. To recommend the following be appointed Directors for the period of the next four years :

H. Nagata (Japan).
 Dr. T. J. O'Connell (Ireland).
 H. Charlesworth (Canada).
 Dr. P. W. Kuo (China).
 H. N. Penlington (England).
 P. Seshadri (India).
 Miss A. Woodward (America).

2. That the choice of a Director from Scotland be remitted to the Council of the Educational Institute of Scotland.

(Signed) J. W. H. BROWN

(Chairman).

Mr. Brown called attention to the recommendation that certain Directors be appointed for the period of the next four years.

Dr. Monroe stated that, shortly before the meeting, he had been approached by a member of the delegation from China, who had handed to him two nominations from which to make a selection for the Directorship. It appeared that Dr. Kuo had not been a member of the teaching profession for some years, and that there did not exist in China a national teachers' organisation, but only organisations covering the provinces. Under the circumstances he asked whether the Delegate Assembly would be willing to defer, for the time, the appointment of a Director representing China.

The President said he was prepared to accept an amendment to the recommendation submitted by the Nominating Committee.

Dr. Monroe accordingly moved :

“ That for the time being the appointment of a Director representing China be deferred, and that the nomination and selection of such Director be left to the Board of Directors.”

The motion was *carried*.

The following were then appointed Directors for the period of the next four years :

Mr. H. Nagata (Japan), Dr. T. J. O'Connell (Ireland), Mr. H. Charlesworth (Canada), Mr. H. N. Penlington (England), Mr. P. Seshadri (India) and Miss A. Woodward (America).

Resolved :

“ That the choice of a Director from Scotland be remitted to the Council of the Educational Institute of Scotland.”

In reply to an inquiry the President explained that the above recommendation was submitted in view of the fact that there had been a misunderstanding with regard to the name of the Scottish Director who was due to retire.

The President called attention to the fact that, under the Statutes, three other Directors might be appointed, under certain conditions, at the discretion of the Board of Directors itself. In pursuance of these powers the Directors had decided to recommend to the new Board the appointment of Dr. Monroe as representing America, Mr. G. R. Parker as representing Secondary Education, and Miss S. Bordhardt as representing the American Federation of Teachers.

Report of Resolutions Committee

In the absence of MR. PARKER (CHAIRMAN), MR. H. HUMPHREY (N.U.T.) presented the following Report :

Meetings of the Resolutions Committee were held at the Randolph Hotel on Thursday, 15th August, 1935, at 11 a.m. and 5.30 p.m., when there were present :

G. R. Parker, Chairman (Assistant Masters' Association).
M. Harada (Japanese Education Association).

Miss Agnes B. Muir (Educational Institute of Scotland).
 F. C. Pearce (All-India Federation).
 H. Humphrey (National Union of Teachers).
 Miss H. D. Pearson (Assistant Mistresses' Association).
 C. R. Lewis (Assistant Masters' Association).
 W. H. Holmes (National Education Association of U.S.).
 W. Carson Ryan (American Federation of Teachers).
 A. G. Phillips (Institute of Handicraft Teachers).
 W. P. Lineham (Irish National Teachers' Association).
 H. Charlesworth (Canadian Teachers' Federation).
 A. E. Henshall (National Union of Teachers).

Careful consideration was given to the resolutions submitted by the various Sections. Eventually it was decided to present to the Delegate Assembly the following resolutions :

Herman Jordan

1. That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A., realising the importance of visual and aural aids to Education, would welcome a wider and better use of the radio and motion pictures in the promotion of the world-understanding, goodwill and peace.
2. That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. urges its Constituent and Co-operating Members to seek to secure a wider observance of Goodwill Day in the schools and other educational institutions throughout the world.
3. That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. is also of opinion that on the days of "National Celebrations" appropriate references should be made with a view to the furtherance of world-understanding, goodwill and peace.
4. That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. affirms that true nationalism should recognise the interdependence of nations and the necessity of peaceful international co-operation under the Kellogg Pact, and urges that facilities should be given for peace teaching according to the principles of the League of Nations.
5. That this General Assembly of the W.F.E.A. sincerely desires that the peace of the world may be maintained, and trusts that the efforts now being made to compose the differences between Italy and Abyssinia by mutual agreement will be successful.

Home and School

That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. reaffirms its belief that mutual understanding and close co-operation between home and school are essential for the true well-being of the child.

Health

1. This Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. approves and seeks to promote through educational authorities a policy which—

(a) provides working conditions in all educational institutions in accordance with sound hygienic principles :

(b) assures an adequate and efficient school medical service :

(c) provides a sound programme of health training and instruction in all schools :

(d) ensures co-operation among administrators, teachers, medical officers and parents :

(e) cultivates a public opinion in favour of the necessary financial expenditure.

2. This Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. declares that in view of the close relation between nutrition and health, the proper nourishment of children requires the careful attention of all concerned.

3. In view of the significance of behaviour and emotional development in childhood and later, the W.F.E.A. regards with approval the increased concern for the mental health of the school child. The Federation especially commends the recent efforts to combine the activities of school physicians, psychiatrists, educational psychologists, teachers and social workers for fuller understanding of the needs of individual children and young persons.

Rural

This Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. reiterates its policy on rural education, and requests the Directors to take all possible steps to press upon Governments and Education Authorities in all countries the urgent necessity of developing and improving the facilities for education in rural areas so as to bring it to the same level of proficiency and effectiveness as that in urban areas.

Pre-School

This Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. declares that, having regard to the importance of the early days of childhood, suitable provision should be made by Educational Authorities for children under the age of compulsory school attendance.

Educational Crafts

That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. desires to draw the attention of the Departments and Ministries of Education of all countries to the urgent need for securing at every stage of school life, up to and including the university stage, a fuller appreciation of the cultural significance of the arts and crafts and the importance of their practice in education.

Facilities should be provided for the continuance of creative craft work throughout the school career.

Social Adjustment

1. That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. is of opinion that equal educational opportunities, to the limit of their capacity to profit thereby, should be provided for all children.

2. That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. affirms the urgent need for raising the school-leaving age so that pupils may spend the years of adolescence under supervision and training.

Resolved :

“ That any resolutions received from the Sections subsequent to this meeting be submitted to the Chairman and Secretary to determine what action, if any, should be taken in relation thereto.”

(Signed) G. R. PARKER

(Chairman).

After explaining that it was the duty of the Resolutions Committee to examine the resolutions submitted from the Sections, and to decide (1) whether they were proper resolutions for submission to the Delegate Assembly and (2) if so, whether they needed any variation in order to make them more appropriate for the occasion, Mr. Humphrey moved the resolutions *seriatim*, with the following result :

Herman Jordan

1-5. *Adopted.*

Home and School

Adopted.

Health

1. Mr. F. Oakley (Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters) inquired whether the reference, in section (a), of the first resolution, to working conditions referred to conditions in school.

Mr. Humphrey thought that was clear in view of the fact that educational authorities were mentioned.

On the motion of Mr. H. N. Penlington (N.U.T.) it was agreed to insert, after "working conditions," the words: "in all educational institutions." The motion as amended was *adopted*.

2. *Adopted.*3. *Adopted.*

Rural

Mr. W. Lloyd Pierce (N.U.T.) stated that a resolution in similar terms was passed at Denver, and inquired what steps had been taken since then by the Federation to get into contact with governments which are essentially backward in the provision of education in rural areas.

The President said that was not a matter which could be dealt with there.

The motion, as submitted, was *adopted*.

Pre-School

Adopted.

Educational Crafts

Adopted.

Social Adjustment

1-2. *Adopted.*

Mr. Humphrey then moved the adoption of the resolutions as a whole, with the amendment recorded above.

Pre-School

This Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. declares that, having regard to the importance of the early days of childhood, suitable provision should be made by Educational Authorities for children under the age of compulsory school attendance.

Educational Crafts

That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. desires to draw the attention of the Departments and Ministries of Education of all countries to the urgent need for securing at every stage of school life, up to and including the university stage, a fuller appreciation of the cultural significance of the arts and crafts and the importance of their practice in education.

Facilities should be provided for the continuance of creative craft work throughout the school career.

Social Adjustment

1. That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. is of opinion that equal educational opportunities, to the limit of their capacity to profit thereby, should be provided for all children.

The Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. affirms for the school-leaving age so that adolescence under supervision

received from the Sections be submitted to the Chairman what action, if any, thereto."

(Signed) G. R. PARKER

(Chairman).

it was the duty of the Resolutions resolutions submitted from the other they were proper resolutions Delegate Assembly and (2) if so, any variation in order to make them for the occasion, Mr. Humphrey moved seriatim, with the following result :

for a more definite connection between the Sections and the Officials of the W.F.E.A., recommend that the following steps be taken to secure these two objectives :

1. That each Section should be encouraged to associate itself with local and national organisations functioning in the same field. In this way some measure of unification of effort might be secured.

2. That one aim of the Sections should be to encourage the accumulation of material dealing with the problems in which the Section is specially interested ; to promote research and investigation in relation thereto, and so to make possible the dissemination of information through the W.F.E.A.

3. That the Sections be requested to collect publications having reference to the work with which they are associated, and to supply the Headquarters of the W.F.E.A. with copies.

4. That when funds allow the Federation should undertake a more extensive publication of reports of educational activities and investigations.

5. That when the financial position of the Federation permits consideration should be given to the provision of appropriate office accommodation and secretarial help for each of the Sections.

To enable the above recommendations to be implemented, the Directors resolved that Sections which may find it necessary shall be empowered to appoint Regional Correspondents.

Dr. Monroe moved the adoption of the report as printed. He stated that a copy of the recommendations had been sent to each of the Sections with an intimation that they would be submitted to the Delegate Assembly. In addition a meeting had been held that morning between the Directors and the Officers selected by the respective Sections. The Directors had made provision for a preliminary meeting with these Officers before the next Conference, and also for a meeting at the close of the Conference. He stressed the need for co-operation and for the assistance which the permanent officials of the Sections could give. He also referred to the Directors' hope that sufficient funds would be obtained to allow the issue of some adequate form of publication by the Federation.

A suggestion that an invitation be sent from Head-quarters to all educational organisations, and to individuals who might be interested, with a view to obtaining more individual members, was referred to the Directors.

The report was received and adopted.

Relation of the W.F.E.A. to other International Bodies

Mr. Charlesworth briefly outlined the steps taken, since the Dublin Conference, to implement the request to the Directors to explore the possibility of securing co-operation between the W.F.E.A., the International Federation of Teachers' Associations, and the International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers. These had led to the formulation of definite proposals which had been accepted by the I.F.T.A. Approaches were being made to the I.F.A.S.T. on the same basis, and it was hoped that, before the close of the Conference, intimation of acceptance would be received. Mr. Charlesworth then read the agreement, as follows :—

1. A condition precedent to closer working and co-ordination of effort between the W.F.E.A. and the I.F.T.A. shall be that each organisation shall preserve its identity and independence.

2. That subject to this rationalisation of effort shall be on the following basis :

(a) The W.F.E.A. shall continue to place its major emphasis on general educational questions.

(b) The I.F.T.A. shall continue to place its major emphasis on the professional and corporative interests of teachers.

In order to prevent the possibility of misunderstanding the connotation "professional and corporative" shall be defined as generally including such matters as :

- i. The conservation of the individual and collective interests of schools and teachers.
- ii. Tenure of teachers.
- iii. Salaries.
- iv. Pensions.
- v. Legal defence of teachers.

3. The W.F.E.A. and I.F.T.A. will engage wherever possible to endeavour to stimulate the membership of the other.

4. Definite plans of co-operation should include provision whereby the World Federation shall make such grants as may be mutually agreed upon to the I.F.T.A. for the purpose of securing copies and copyrights of the bulletins, reviews, reports, *etc.*, published by it—such grants to be related to services rendered.

5. For the purpose of dealing with all matters of mutual concern, joint committees of the two organisations shall be constituted.

6. Among the matters referred to the joint committees would be :

(a) Administrative co-ordination.

(b) Joint conferences and/or meetings.

(c) Finance.

(d) Any difficulties arising from an application from an Association in membership with one organisation for membership of the other.

Resolved on the motion of Mr. Charlesworth :—

“ That the proposed agreement with the International Federation of Teachers’ Associations be approved.”

“ That the Directors be empowered to conclude, should it be possible, an agreement on similar terms with the International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers.”

Amendment of By-Laws

The President reported that some difficulty had been experienced in co-ordinating the activities of the International Council of Home and School and those of the Federation. The statutes of the Federation as at present constituted did not permit the admission to full membership of organisations which were international in scope. In view of this difficulty the Directors had authorised him to give notice, as entitled to do under the statutes, of their intention to frame an amendment to the By-Laws to provide for the

admission of approved educational organisations of international scope into the World Federation under specified conditions. The draft of the By-Laws, as amended, would be placed before the next meeting of the Delegate Assembly for approval. This, he anticipated, would take place in two years' time.

Adjournment

There being no further business, the Delegate Assembly adjourned at 4.30 p.m.

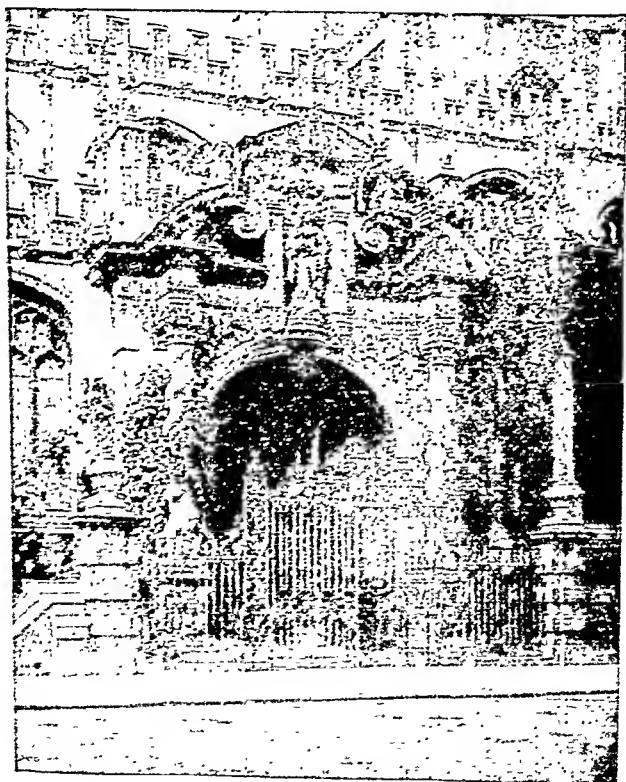


Photo: Alder (Oxford)

THE PORCH, ST. MARY-THE-VIRGIN'S CHURCH

SECTIONAL MEETINGS

ADULT EDUCATION

Chairman : J. COMPTON, Director of Education, Barking, Essex.

Secretary : Miss A. E. PHILLIPS, Avery Hill Training College, London.

Place of Meeting : The Playhouse.

Friday, 16th August, 10.0 a.m.-12.30 p.m.

About forty delegates representing many different countries and educational interests attended this section. The following countries were represented : England and Wales, Ireland, Australia, South Africa, U.S.A., Japan, Latvia, Estonia, Poland, Sweden, France, Switzerland, Austria, India and Palestine.

The Chairman said in his opening remarks : "Adult Education is the name given to an exciting enterprise. To the average man, however, the name merely connotes somewhat stuffily pedagogic courses of extended school education in which the dominie can domineer. The term 'adult education' really stands for a lively reality in close relation to human needs. Such adult education will exist wherever men and women are keen to propound problems and desire to discover solutions under sympathetic guidance. Efforts in this direction will lead to the discovery of the relation of self to society. One of the most important recent developments in Adult Education has been the growth of residential colleges."

The Place of the Residential College in Adult Education

Mr. James Dudley (Principal, Avoncroft College for Rural Workers) said: "There are at present eight residential colleges and 250 students, who come mainly for a year's course. Although the colleges differ considerably in details of administration, each seeks to give opportunity especially to workers in industry, and at the present time to unemployed workers, for non-vocational education in the most favourable circumstances for full-time study. The colleges have grown up in the Adult Education Movement and differ in educational method and approach from the Universities, for their students are workers in most cases of over twenty years of age who have left the elementary schools at fourteen, or who have had at the most two or three years of secondary education before becoming wage-earners. Such students are often people of exceptional ability and force of character. Though the number of students in any one college is small, a wide range of courses exists, since there are so great a variety in the main interests of the students. A broad curriculum is necessary in which a variety of cultural and leisure interests find a place. Two features of very great importance are the close personal contact between the student and his tutor and the fact of living together in a group larger than the ordinary family circle and composed of keen-minded individuals with varied tastes and interests and of varied dispositions. It is undesirable to attempt to fit the students into a University mould. They need a great deal of help in grammar and composition and even in methods of reading and note-taking. There is a lack of co-ordination of the work of the many organisations in the field of Adult Education, and consequently difficulty often arises in selecting the most suitable candidates. It is important that these colleges should be an integral part of the whole system of National Adult Education, and that students should be selected after a period of good work in the tutorial part-time classes. In this way students will enter the colleges better prepared, and it may be assumed that they will be more alike in their standards of knowledge.

A considerable proportion of the students return to their old jobs, or somewhat similar ones, after their course and do well. It is a fortunate circumstance that their minds are unsettled as a result of their college course, for in the end the student is enabled to adjust his values and ideas in the

light of a deeper knowledge and more critical study of facts. An inquiry undertaken by us has shown that some of the students have taken up a political career and have entered Parliament, some have found work in the Co-operative Movement, some have become tutors or secretaries of Adult Classes, and some have obtained posts in other fields of social service."

An animated discussion followed, and Mr. Dudley dealt with each point as it was raised. The importance of careful selection was stressed. Mr. Dudley thought that wrong selection might account for the failures, though these were very few in all. Mr. Dudley explained that very few students became elementary teachers. One or two speakers took a pessimistic view. Miss Whitmore of Ipswich, thought such training "a misfortune in men's lives," for they cannot fit in again in the working world. They tended to "wander between two worlds, one dead and the other to be born." More thought should be devoted to the welfare of the students after leaving the colleges. Mr. Dudley was emphatic that the changed outlook of the students after their college course was to be welcomed; many returned to their old work quite happily, others felt impelled to seek new spheres of work. Mr. Dudley thought there was little evidence of discontent.

The question of financial assistance provoked a good deal of comment. Only younger unmarried men and women were able as a rule to take the year's course, as practically all had to make some slight contribution to the cost of upkeep. This was a special hardship in the rural colleges, for farm labourers had practically no chance to save money. Mr. Dudley was emphatic that the position was an absurd one, for an average working man should not be expected to contribute anything. Candidates who had proved their worth, particularly in evening classes and W.E.A. classes, should have full financial assistance. The colleges have certain Government grants, grants of varying amounts up to £50 per head from L.E.A.s, but depend very largely on private support. Mr. Dudley thought that the difficulty of finance was to some extent due to the way in which the colleges originated. The pioneers had "plunged" the colleges into the educational field without previous discussion with the Board of Education and the L.E.A.s. The outstanding fact remained, that it was totally unfair to expect

contributions from the entrants. How could an agricultural labourer earning 31s. per week hope to save £75, a year's fees? Some delegates thought the question of finance an almost insuperable difficulty. The prime purpose of the movement, to create opportunities on a wide scale for students from the working classes, could never be fulfilled, as the colleges were not likely to cater for more than a few students (250 at present). It was made clear in the discussion that opportunities for students were very much better in Denmark, Norway, Sweden and even Iceland. In these countries there were thousands of students getting educational advantages. A Swedish delegate was aghast at the small number catered for in England. Some delegates felt that it would be better to use the money available to concentrate on facilities for more extended evening courses. Mr. Dudley did not approve of this suggestion, for the residential college can give opportunities for quiet study, tutorial coaching and individual work that were of almost unprecedented value to the student. He wanted the entire withdrawal from normal life for a period so that students might get chances for "quiet reflection" that was impossible in the "turmoil of wage-earning." Many of the students hardly knew why they had come. They had "an uneasy feeling roving about in their heads" that they must *know* more. Residential colleges gave far wider opportunities for such students than ordinary evening classes.

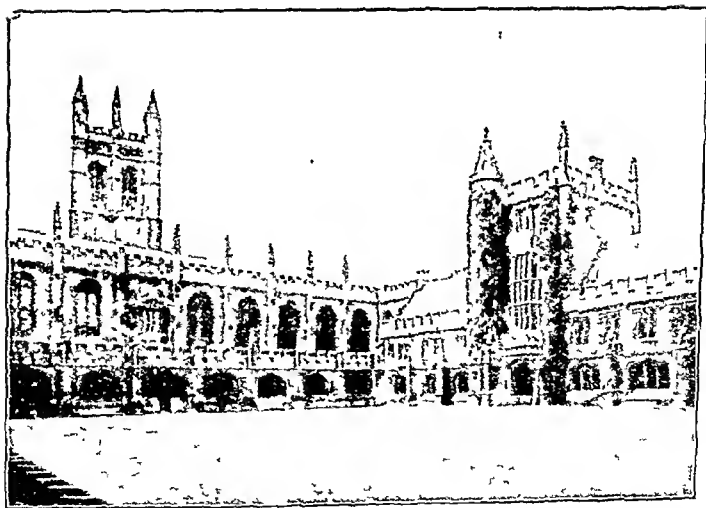
A good deal of discussion ranged round the subject of the agricultural worker. Farmers practically never keep a job open as do many of the larger firms in towns, and never pay part of the fees. Mr. Dudley said that in his experience no farm worker ever could afford to contribute more than £5, yet fees amounted to £100-£150 per year. A very recent report of the Ministry of Agriculture made quite clear that the Government, at any rate, was in favour of a more general education for agricultural workers.

Some delegates thought there was a moral responsibility on the students to return to the job they had left. Mr. Dudley had the majority of his audience with him in his emphatic denial of this idea. The student must be free to choose and to seek for other opportunities of work if he desired; one must not attempt to dictate what people should do with their lives.

Another problem of general interest was that of University education. On the whole it was felt that there was too marked a difference between these workers over twenty years of age and the normal undergraduate for University education to be satisfactory for the limited time they could afford. There were important differences of experience, training and outlook that could not be disregarded.

Mr. Weatherburn (Adelaide University, Australia), explained that they had no such colleges for workers in Australia, but an attempt had been made to cater for extended education for working-class students in the Universities in the provision of scholarships for such candidates and special tutorial classes outside the degree courses.

Mr. Dudley agreed with Mr. Compton's suggestion that it would be a good plan to foster the establishment of week-end courses all over the country with a view to establishing centres for recruitment.



[Photo Allen (Oxford)]

MAGDALEN COLLEGE THE CLOISTERS

BROADCASTING SECTION

President : THE RT. HON. H. A. L. FISHER (The Warden of New College, Oxford, and Member of the Board of Governors, British Broadcasting Corporation).

Secretary : MISS MARY SOMERVILLE (Schools Talk Director, British Broadcasting Corporation, and Secretary to the Central Council for School Broadcasting).

Place of Meeting : The Masonic Buildings.

The most remarkable feature of the first two sessions in this section was the unanimity of the delegates upon the function of School Broadcasting. In every country it was accepted wholly that broadcasting was to supplement and not supplant the work of the class-room teacher, and in every country there was general acceptance of the natural corollary : that broadcasts of music and modern languages, 'outside broadcasts' and 'actualities,' dramatized historical scenes, talks by eminent men and women, and certain types of scientific talk, had a valuable and characteristic contribution to make to school education. In most countries there were broadcasts of all these kinds in the programme. Less general were broadcasts of gymnastics, as in Sweden ; art, as in Denmark ; music and movement for infants, as in Great Britain ; drawing, as in Italy ; and mathematics, as in New South Wales.

Great Britain appeared to be the only country where the programme was arranged almost entirely in regular courses, opinion elsewhere being in favour of single broadcasts, or very short series of two or three.

The relationship between School Broadcasting and the central educational authority on the one hand and the main body of teachers on the other varied from country to country. In Italy and South Australia, both broadcasting and the main educational system were highly centralised. At the other extreme, the two great broadcasting chains in U.S.A. had practically no contact with either the Department of Education in Washington or the listening teachers. Four interesting methods were described of arranging for the co-operation of teachers in planning the programmes : in Czecho-Slovakia teacher representatives were appointed in



MISS MARY SOMERVILLE (SECRETARY) WITH LECTURERS AND DELEGATES TO THE BROADCASTING SECTION

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every area, and these watched the broadcasts carefully and forwarded criticisms to the broadcasting authority ; in Great Britain the programmes were arranged in detail by a number of Subject Committees, on each of which there was a majority of teachers ; in Sweden a conference was held every year of teachers from selected schools ; and in Denmark the secretary to the Committee for School Broadcasting was also a prominent headmaster and was able to watch the effect of the broadcasts in his own school.

Clearly in many countries lack of money was a hindrance to rapid increase in the number of listening schools. Italy, however, with skilful organisation and propaganda, had succeeded in putting receiving apparatus in as many as 6,000 rural schools. In Czecho-Slovakia, as well as in Italy, special receiving sets had been designed for schools.

In the session on broadcast Adult Education, two main topics were discussed. The first was the difficulty of compiling a programme which combined popular appeal and intellectual quality. Sweden and America, it was reported, had experimented with talks broadcast direct from University lecture rooms ; Austrian policy was to arrange talks for large sectional audiences rather than to attempt to secure a wide general audience for every series.

The second topic was the place of controversial matters in Adult Education programmes. Great Britain, Sweden and Australia adopted a policy of treating social, political and economic, as well as cultural questions controversially at the microphone, while Great Britain and Sweden also arranged special series of talks designed for group listening and critical discussion.

particularly of the relations between the broadcasting authority and the various local and central education authorities.

"Comparisons are difficult because educational and broadcasting conditions vary considerably from country to country. My own country, Belgium, is small. Distances are insignificant and means of communication are plentiful. And Belgium has very old educational traditions, too. Consequently, in Belgium the future of school broadcasting is not to be compared with its prospects in Russia or the United States of America.

"We began preliminary experiments in 1930, but before starting, we studied the results of the experiments in Britain and Germany, and I take this opportunity of paying homage to the B.B.C., who has been the God-mother of European broadcasting.

"A central committee is responsible for the service in Belgium. It is composed of educational experts and representatives of the Board of Education, the private Catholic schools and the broadcasting authority, the I.N.R. The number of schools listening more or less regularly is somewhere between 250 and 375, plus about 100 schools connected to relay services (*radio-centrales*).

"We only intend, of course, to supplement class teaching. '*Ne donner que des choses qu'une école ordinaire, disposant de ressources limitées et d'un personnel non spécialisé, ne peut donner dans d'aussi bonnes conditions.*' The speaker at the microphone is a colleague who does not want to supplant the teacher in the class-room. And he is not allowed to interfere too much with the work the teacher does with the class before and after the broadcast. An illustrated monthly 'Bulletin' is published, but in it the broadcaster may only give a bibliography or indicate a few subjects which might be taken for supervised study. 1,400 French and 1,000 Dutch copies of this 'Bulletin' are distributed free."

Mr. Kuypers went on to suggest possible causes for the relative lack of popularity of school broadcasting in Belgium.

"Half of our broadcasting time at first was devoted to secondary schools and training colleges. The other half to children from twelve to fifteen. It was only exceptionally that we addressed the elementary schools, with their thousands of potential listeners.

We think now that all broadcasts should be more or less recreative; that our presentation has been too specifically instructional in the past.

"As a whole, the body of teachers in secondary schools, athenées, lycées, dislike the intrusion of the loud-speaker. They dislike it for a variety of reasons: because of the passiveness of the listeners; the want of personal contact; the appeal to the sense of hearing alone; the difficulty of fitting broadcasts into the school time-table; the difficulty of making full use of the 'Bulletin' which, issued monthly, leaves only a small interval for preparation before some of the broadcasts, etc. Another and more practical difficulty is the expensiveness of the new medium. Education authorities are afraid of the price and the cost of upkeep of school sets. Much remains to be done, too, in making good reception conditions general.

"We are conscious that there have been deficiencies in the service. There is not enough collaboration with the teachers and the pupils. The bulletins are for the teachers, but there are no pamphlets for the pupils. We take insufficient account of elementary schools and of rural secondary schools (*écoles moyennes*), although these are the most interesting and most interested listeners. There has been insufficient co-operation with broadcasting experts who understand broadcasting technique, with the result that our presentation is sometimes too didactic.

"We have tried broadcasting all school subjects: Some have met with considerable success, but many of our experiments have proved complete failures or only half successful. We have found, for one thing, that young people are not impressed by the names of celebrated statesmen, scholars or poets.

"We all of us in our different countries," Mr. Kuypers said in conclusion, "are quite aware of the technical difficulties to be overcome at the transmission end as well as at the listening end. We have lost some illusions, but evidence of the value of school broadcasting has been accumulated. We are fairly sure that television, by the joint efforts of the broadcasting organisations and the *Cinema éducatif* at Rome will soon be adding another interesting chapter to our experience.

"To the new generation broadcasting is a commonplace experience. They have not acquired the visual habits of us who are adults. They can listen to foreign languages spoken by natives every day and to first-rate music every night. My own children have a much wider knowledge of music and musical history than I ever dreamt of at the same age. They are used to listening intently and profitably, where

we were accustomed only to reading or writing. They are living proofs of the reality of direct and indirect education by radio. Wireless will obtain *droit de cité* in our schools, because the young people are used to it and the young people cannot do without it."

Count Guido Visconti di Modrone (Senator, Member of the Board of Governors of the *Ente Italiano per le Audizioni Radiofoniche*, Italian Broadcasting Company) said that the body which had been set up to deal with school broadcasting in Italy was controlled very much more closely by the Government than the Belgian Committee described by Mr. Kuypers or by the British Central Council for School Broadcasting.

"A special Board, created, financed and controlled by the State, was established two years ago for the purpose of broadcasting to schools, especially to schools in rural districts. This Board, *L'Ente Radio Rurale*, has had highly powerful wireless sets designed specially for schools and sold at extremely low prices. They are not on sale to the public at large. These sets have been installed in 6,000 country schools, and it is reckoned that the programmes are listened to by a million and a half children.

"The programmes are planned by a Committee of the *Ente Radio Rurale*, appointed by the Minister of Education, and they keep within the range of subjects in the regular curriculum of elementary schools. The Board publishes a monthly magazine of which 200,000 copies are distributed free of charge. The Duce takes school broadcasting very seriously and has appointed no less a person than Signor Starace, the Secretary of the Fascist Party, to outline the programmes for the coming school year.

"In all its work," Count Visconti said, "the *Ente Radio Rurale* followed the principle that it was the function of radio to increase the resources of the teacher, not to duplicate them." He himself believed that in Italy radio was "rapidly transforming the schools from chambers of boredom and often of torture, into palaces of magic and adventure."

The first aim of the *Ente Radio Rurale* had been to assist agricultural education in rural areas, but the programme had been widened in scope, and now half of it was devoted to music, political education and subjects of general culture.

Dr. Otakar Matousek (Director of Talks, Radio-journal S.A., Czechoslovak Broadcasting Company) said that in Czechoslovakia one third of all the elementary

schools had receiving sets ; about half a million pupils in elementary schools and 10,000 teachers were listening to the programmes. In addition nearly half of the secondary schools were using them. There were a further 1,000 German and 500 Hungarian minority schools with their own system of school broadcasting. In all, there were about 5,000 listening schools.

" I must say," said Dr. Matousek, " that we in Czechoslovakia find broadcasting of great use, especially in districts where the cultural centres are very far apart, for example in the Carpathian Mountains."

" A special School Broadcasting Committee appointed by the Ministry of Education," he went on, " prepares the programme for the whole year. A smaller committee meets twice a month. Besides these official committees, we have honorary representatives in each district—usually young teachers. These teachers make suggestions, criticise the programmes, help the schools, write to us about their experiences. Without their enthusiasm success would be impossible. These local representatives are going to be most important in the future. We find their work very valuable indeed.

" On the other hand—speaking for myself—I honestly believe that the official committee of the ministry has not yet discovered its true function. We appreciate its help very much—it means the help of the government authorities, but this committee cannot prepare a modern, vital programme. A serious, heavily official programme is no use for children, and the Czechoslovak Broadcasting Company does its best to improve on the committee's suggestions. We are glad to have the Authorities as sponsors of our work but we do not believe they should prepare the programme in detail or even attempt it.

" The Broadcasting Company have a special Technical Committee which helps schools (without charge) to choose good sets and have them installed properly. Last year nearly 1,000 special sets were constructed for school use. This set consists of a central receiver with a special amplifier and ten or more loud-speakers in different class-rooms. Some of the receiving sets are bought by the Ministry of Education—at least in very poor districts—others are given by the Broadcasting Company, most by parent-teachers' associations ; sometimes, but not very often, pupils themselves try to raise the money, for instance, by selling embroideries they have made themselves at school.

Whenever we find a good Supervisor of Education interested in broadcasting, the schools in his district—sometimes all of them—show great interest in broadcast education. More commonly we find that supervisors are not of much assistance to us—they are often conservative elderly men who do not like new methods of any kind.

“You might consider,” Dr. Matousek said in conclusion, “that our schools took a very satisfactory interest in broadcasting, and that there was nothing for us who broadcast to worry about. But there are still a lot of sets being used which are not satisfactory, and we still have to fight official interference with the general planning and especially with the detailed planning of programmes. Sometimes we get a little tired of fighting misunderstanding, but the children’s enthusiasm always makes us feel we must go on doing our best. If sometimes we are sceptical of the value of broadcasting, as an instrument of education, it is not because of the difficulties that face us in the way of conservatism and lack of money; we are sceptical only when we find ourselves trying to teach by broadcasting things that the teacher can do far better by himself. I honestly believe that the future of school broadcasting lies in introducing to children the really important people, ideas and events of the day, and that it is its task to create in them the feeling that they, the listeners, are a single family and that mankind is one brotherhood.”

Dr. W. W. Vaughan (Chairman of the Central Council for School Broadcasting, Great Britain) said that previous speakers had alluded to difficulties and hopes, many of which had been experienced and cherished in Britain.

“But they have been speaking of a situation in some ways different from ours. We have certain special difficulties of our own—one difficulty is that English education has to pay a considerable price for its freedom. If I may use a comparison, English schools are more like trolley buses than trams. They derive their motive power from lines that run overhead through the streets. The power is provided by the local authority and the State, and the destination may be indicated by both, but they are guided in their course by the headmaster or headmistress as the case may be. There is, therefore, a good deal more freedom of movement, within limits, in the schools of England than in those of other countries which run as it were on tram lines.”

Dr. Vaughan said that even with the late Minister of Education in Oxford (as Lord Halifax was at that moment), he dared say that the schools were not bound to follow all the advice given them by the central authority.

"And the British Broadcasting Corporation is certainly not bound by the State even though, in a sense, it gets the help of the State. Its educational work is done by a council on which sit representatives of the State, of local authorities and of teachers' organisations, together with others nominated for the contribution they may be expected to make to the general problems of educational broadcasting."

The Central Council for School Broadcasting, he said, in working out the details of its programme had the help of a further number of teachers. The broadcasts in each subject were arranged by a sub-committee composed of a member of the Council, and teachers other than those who were members of the Council. This secured great freedom in the choice and treatment of subject.

"Please remember, however," Dr. Vaughan went on, "that because of our freedom there is no power to compel any school even to be equipped for broadcasting, much less to take any particular broadcast programme. Another of our difficulties is that though teachers are often almost radical in national politics, they are inclined to be ultra-conservative in educational politics, and assistant teachers sometimes insinuate that the conservatism of headmasters creates absurd time-table difficulties. But all these are being gradually converted to the great value of broadcasting in education.

"We have got past the stage when extravagant claims had to be made for broadcasting. We can now make sensible claims. It cannot supplant, but it can supplement, the Teacher or do some of the work which *all* Teachers in *all* schools cannot be expected to do. We have to remember that besides schools in the towns where there is a staff capable of teaching almost any subject, there are little schools where you have only one teacher. There are many secondary schools, too, in small towns, where there are few teachers and where there are inevitably subjects that cannot get the sort of teaching which is required for the few more advanced pupils. Broadcasting can help these schools enormously.

"Even in the big secondary schools, broadcasting can do a great deal. Broadcasting can help them to escape from the inflexibilities and the antagonisms of ordinary school life by creating a more bracing intellectual climate and

offering richer æsthetic experiences, and can, at the same time, train the adolescent listener to be a wiser adult listener.

"Again, we would all acknowledge that it is useful to have knowledge and theories put before us from a fresh point of view. The man on the staff who does so is sometimes regarded as a revolutionary, or is hardly listened to because we discount his opinions. It is a real gain for new ideas to be introduced to a school without the special authority that is enjoyed by some teachers and without the special prejudice that may be the lot of others. We all of us need to be brought into contact with new ideas not associated with any personality whom we are inclined to criticise as being no better and no wiser than we are ourselves. It is a great advantage to get outside all the complexes of school life; to do this, broadcasting can help us."

Dr. Vaughan suggested that broadcasting might help to save us from another and more subtle evil, our specialisation.

"I am sure that the future of the intelligence and welfare of the British people, indeed of all people, is bound up closely with the breaking down of all watertight compartments—athletic, intellectual and national—and broadcasting is one of the means to this end. It cannot do the work alone. We shall all have to help, but it has already done something and it can do more, especially if we refuse to be pessimistic about it.

"We are being continually warned, in these days of anxiety, that from the air we must expect messengers of fear and destruction. Let us not miss the opportunity of getting through the air also messages of hope and good will. They are available."

In the discussion which followed, Dr. Gösta Bergman (Swedish Broadcasting Company) described the organisation of school broadcasting in Sweden. The Swedish Broadcasting Company possesses a monopoly. One of the corporation's officials is responsible for the broadcasts to elementary schools, and another, Dr. Bergman himself, for those to secondary schools. Each term's programme has to be sanctioned by the Board of Education. There is no body similar to the Central Council for School Broadcasting, but there is an annual conference at which programmes for the following year are discussed. Some of the broadcasters are present at this conference, and teachers

are invited from every kind of listening school, the personnel being changed each year. The Company also maintains contact with the schools by means of questionnaires. Every term, too, there are competitions in connection with some of the outstanding broadcasts and sometimes as many as 900 schools take part. Usually the competition takes the form of some kind of composition.

There are about 1,800 elementary schools making use of the broadcasts, and 110,000 of their pupils receive, free of charge, a pamphlet each term, paid for by the State. For the secondary schools a special pamphlet is issued twice a year with details of the talks and dialogues in foreign languages. This is circulated to about 120 schools. Dr. Bergman reckoned that about 25 per cent. of the schools in Sweden made use of school broadcasting. The number had increased steadily since 1929, when the service began. Dr. Bergman agreed with all that the Chairman, Mr. Kuypers, had said regarding the principles on which school broadcasting should be based, and only wished to emphasise that the teacher ought to make a careful choice among the broadcasts offered him. Many schools in Sweden, in fact, took only one, two or three broadcast series each term.

Rektor Henrik Madsen (Headmaster of St. Jørgens High School, Copenhagen; Secretary to the Ministry of Education Committee on School Broadcasting, Denmark) believed that school broadcasts should be neither wholly instruction nor wholly entertainment, but something between the two—"what I should call entertaining instruction." He said that in Denmark, after a trial period of three months, a committee had been formed to look after school broadcasting, consisting of representatives from all kinds of schools, and now the Chief Inspector of the Higher Schools and the two Superintendents of the other schools sat on the committee as well. Dr. Madsen pointed out two directions in which school broadcasting had great value.

"Broadcasting has become one of the most important means of educational recreation," he said. "I think it is the schools' duty to train the pupils in the use of this new medium, to teach them how to be good listeners and to discriminate between the worth while and the worthless.

"And then every teacher has his own hobby-horse which he wants his pupils to ride. It is a bit of luck for the children that broadcasting gives them the opportunity of hearing things dealt with in another manner. Their critical

sense will be stimulated when they see that the words of the class-room prophet are not always the only wisdom.

"In Denmark this year broadcasting was doing something new," Dr. Madsen added. "New principles and methods were being introduced into the Higher Schools by the Board of Education, and the teachers were finding it difficult to draw up their new plans of work. The Chief Inspector of the Higher Schools had proposed that the experts who had drawn up the new schemes should give a few broadcasts expounding them, and this was going to be done."

Mr. Lester Ward Parker (Rochester School of the Air, N.Y., United States of America) said that he had been asked to say something about the American system of school broadcasting.

"I have racked my brains to find what is the American system. We haven't one. In the United States of America there is no central educational authority. The Department of Education in Washington has purely advisory functions. It gathers and transmits information. The unit of educational organisation is the individual State, and there are as many types of organisation as there are States. There is nothing done on a national basis, or on a national scale, in school broadcasting except for the very limited activities of the two great broadcasting chains. One of them, the National Broadcasting Company, has for some years broadcast Friday morning concerts by the great orchestra under the direction of Walter Damrosch. The other, the Columbia Broadcasting Company, has conducted for several years what is known as the American School of the Air, and during the school year, every afternoon from 2.30-3.0 p.m. it is carried by all Columbia stations. This School of the Air has no connection with any educational system or organisation. It has an advisory council but its programmes are produced by the staff of the Columbia system.

"Besides these two nation-wide organisations, we need to look next to our State Universities. The State University of Wisconsin was the first real educational broadcasting station in the United States, and it is still thriving. Many States have organised stations for purely educational purposes, but many of them have fallen by the wayside, due to commercial competition. Few actually do any broadcasting directly to schools. In my own city, Rochester, I happen to be connected with the Rochester School of the Air. We are a city system within the State of New York, and our

In each State, committees co-operated with the officers of the broadcasting commission in the preparation of school programmes. In South Australia the committee was appointed by the Department of Education, but in the other States the committees were representative of all bodies interested in education.

Australia had its own reception problems. Very great distances separated the capital cities from the more remote parts of some of the States; for instance, Broken Hill, one of the largest cities in New South Wales, was nearly 600 miles from Sydney, the broadcasting centre. Reception in remote areas would be improved as soon as relay stations, which were being constructed in each State, began to operate.

Many of the smaller country schools, too, found it difficult to raise enough money to purchase receiving apparatus, since it was much more expensive in Australia than in England or America. Hundreds of schools had only a score or so of pupils, and many had even less. Parents' and Citizens' Associations, Progress Associations and similar bodies were doing all that they could in areas where reception was good to finance the purchase of suitable sets.

In spite of these difficulties, 760 schools listened to the broadcasts, although the total population was less than seven millions. These figures compared favourably with those of Great Britain, for instance, where broadcasts to schools had been organised regularly for eleven years.

South Australia had the highest proportion of schools listening to broadcasts, 230 schools in the State owning receiving sets. This was largely due to the subsidies, up to one third of the cost of apparatus, offered to listening schools by the Department of Education, and also to the very close identification of the State Education Department with the actual preparation of the programmes. The broadcasts, in fact, were considered part of the normal school curriculum.

In New South Wales, school broadcasting undertook a unique function. Once a week there were broadcasts to pupils of the State correspondence schools. In the State there were six thousand children whose homes were so distant from the nearest school that attendance was impossible, and they were taught by correspondence. Over three hundred of these children listened regularly to broadcasts by their correspondence tutors.

In New South Wales, too, school broadcasting had had to face a unique difficulty. In January, 1935, the State

Public Services Board had decided that deductions must be made from the fees paid to any public servant for broadcast talks. These deductions, which were to be passed into public revenue, ranged from 25 per cent. for talks given in the speaker's own time to 75 per cent. for broadcasts during the speaker's working hours. This meant that most of the school broadcast speakers who were State servants had to sacrifice three quarters of their fees. Most of the broadcasters had agreed to carry on at the reduced rate, pending an appeal, and the regulation was now partly suspended. Officers of the Education Department were subject to a reduction of 12½ per cent., but officers of the Health and Agriculture Departments and the State Conservatory of Music were still subject to a reduction of 75 per cent. of their fees if they broadcast during their normal working hours.

SECOND SESSION, THURSDAY, 15TH AUGUST,
10.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

Types of School Broadcast

SOUND LESSONS, ILLUSTRATED TALKS AND DRAMATIC
INTERLUDES, TOPICAL TALKS, NEW COMMENTARIES,
BROADCASTS OF PUBLIC CEREMONIES AND EVENTS.

Chairman : MR. CHARLES A. SIEPMANN (Director of Talks,
British Broadcasting Corporation).

The Chairman explained that the purpose of the session was to discuss the different types of material that could be broadcast usefully to schools and the various methods of presentation that had proved successful in securing the interest of children.

Dr. Rudolf Henz (Director of Education, Oesterreichische Radioverkehrs A.G., Austrian Broadcasting Company) said that in Austria the greatest importance was attached to broadcasts of music, the value of which was undisputed. The total number of broadcasts to schools was

five a fortnight; one of these was always devoted to music. These music broadcasts took various forms. A broadcast might be a five minute talk on a great composer, followed by twenty-five minutes of examples of his work with explanatory comments, or it might be an illustrated talk on an opera or a symphony; or it might introduce to children musical instruments and their groupings. Broadcasts of this latter type, particularly, in which the broadcaster asked the listeners a number of questions, were popular.

Whenever comment was introduced into music broadcasts, its purpose was appreciative rather than analytical. In the coming autumn the Company would be broadcasting music once a month without any comment whatever.

The music broadcasts were performed usually by professional musicians, but specially trained children's choirs and orchestras were sometimes invited to broadcast, with the idea of encouraging other children to join choirs and orchestras themselves.

Courses on orchestration and song had extended over a year, but these were the only *courses* that had been broadcast to schools. On principle the Company were opposed to introducing courses because they interfered excessively with the schools' internal arrangements and approximated to class-room instruction. But they quite frequently arranged short series of two or three talks.

Foreign language broadcasts were also once a fortnight. They were alternately English and French, and were in three grades, so there was actually only one talk per grade per quarter.

"This is not much," Dr. Henz said, "But it is sufficient for our purpose. Our purpose is not to increase the pupils' knowledge of grammar or his vocabulary, but only to give him the opportunity of listening to the pronunciation of the true-born Englishman or Frenchman."

Dr. Henz stressed the importance of the pupils being familiar with the text of what was being broadcast. Special booklets were published at cost price, containing the texts, the words of the songs, illustrative material, explanatory remarks and even, sometimes, certain talks in full.

They had expected in Austria that readings from classical plays would prove good material for school broadcasting. They found, however, that their primary purpose, cultivation of the German mother tongue, was fulfilled just as satisfactorily in other broadcasts, and the plays introduced difficulties of their own. For national as well as educational

reasons the readings had to be purged unconditionally of all words borrowed from other languages and adapted to the understanding of young children. Peasant children especially were not familiar with High German and found it difficult to follow the broadcasts.

The three kinds of broadcasts already mentioned, broadcasts of music, modern languages and drama, Dr. Henz said, supplied material that was beyond the power of the teacher to supply himself. There was another type of broadcast equally important, which had proved successful and in which there was no great inherent difficulty. Before the coming of school broadcasting very few schools had been able to hear scientists report on their researches or discoveries, or explorers tell their adventures, or poets read and talk about their own poems. This could be brought about by broadcasting, and it was popular, but the subject matter had to be vivid and interesting, and it was essential that the writer of the talk should read the script in person.

The value of running commentaries, Dr. Henz went on, was still controversial. It was difficult for the child, who was still primarily visual, to grasp the significance of noises relayed, say from a factory.

"After a good many experiments we have decided only to broadcast running commentaries which are closely related to the child's own auditory experience, for example, descriptions of a visit to a market-place or a railway station, or which are unusually significant, such as the striking of coins at the mint or the activities of an airport. The commentaries are either real 'outside broadcasts,' or a *montage* of wax records and sound films, suitably interspersed with comments."

Numbers of broadcasts of this kind originally intended for adults had been adapted successfully for children.

So far as possible all broadcasts were put in dramatic form. One broadcast a fortnight was a play, either based on legends and fairy tales, for children between nine and eleven, or drawn from political and cultural history, for older children.

"These plays have to be specially written with the ages of the listening children taken fully into account, and in their production effect must sometimes be sacrificed to intelligibility. Many a good play has been killed, so far as we are concerned, by the actors speaking too rapidly or the noises off being too loud. Clarity, a simple plot, careful elocution, and a sparing use of emotional expression, are essentials in plays that are to be broadcast to children."

Dr. Henz gave some examples of the subjects chosen for these plays : the founding of a monastery, the origin of the red-white-red national flag, the mastersingers, a law court in olden days, police court proceedings after a road accident, how two Carinthian boys journeyed up to Hamburg with examples of the dialects they met with on the way, how the carol " Stille Nacht, Heilige Nacht " came to be written, and so on.

Talks pure and simple, he said, were broadcast very rarely for children between twelve and fourteen, and then only if they included sound effects of some kind. In fact talks on subjects which lent themselves to illustration by sound, e.g. on the heart (illustrated by the cardiac sounds of different kinds of animals) or on the evolution of sound-recording apparatuses were extremely popular.

Broadcasting naturally played a part in the various celebrations which the schools in Austria were called upon to observe, centenaries of composers and men of learning for example, but the education authorities did not want the schools to depend too much on outside help in these matters and the broadcasts were therefore transmitted one or two days before or after the date in question.

" It goes without saying," Dr. Henz went on " that our school broadcasting is put into the service of patriotic education, but the ordinary school subjects do not suffer by it. We seek to awaken in the children a love of their country by telling them of the part it has played in the arts, sciences and learning, as well as by giving the leaders of the new Austria opportunities of addressing them in non-party political talks. Educating the younger generation for the corporate state will occupy a fair share of school broadcasting for some years to come."

Dr. Henz went on to describe how the programmes were drawn up for a year at a time by a Commission of seven members, one of whom was the Director of School Broadcasting and of whom the remainder were representatives of the Ministry of Education and the different types of school. About 80 per cent. of the broadcasts were written by members of the Commission, and usually a member of the Commission edited any script that was given to an outside specialist to prepare. The manuscripts were discussed in detail at the commission's weekly meetings, recast if necessary two or three times, and finally approved by the Minister of Education. The Director of School Broadcasting alone was responsible for the actual transmission.

Dr. Henrik Madsen (Secretary to the Ministry of Education Committee for School Broadcasting, Denmark) said that in music and art, subjects in which few teachers were qualified entirely satisfactorily, broadcasting should and could prove a useful ally. Broadcasts on Danish music and well-known operas had become a feature of their programmes for children from fifteen to eighteen years of age. Gramophone records were used to supply suitable illustrations, and the broadcaster himself played important phrases on the piano.

The Director of Thorvaldsen's Museum in Copenhagen had given many successful broadcasts for children of this same age. Pamphlets were sent to the schools containing copies of Thorvaldsen's most famous works, and the broadcaster described them in detail and told the story of Thorvaldsen's life. Broadcasts on art had also been given by the directors of other museums and art galleries in Copenhagen.

"Every year during the summer time," said Dr. Madsen, "children from all over the country come to Copenhagen to see our museums. Very often it is a tiresome wandering from place to place with shifting impressions slipping in and out. Now the children who come and have listened to the broadcasts search out the statues they have heard described. Instead of meaningless shapes of marble they find good friends they are glad to meet again."

In Denmark lessons were broadcast regularly in Swedish, German, English and French, and texts of the lessons were obtainable by all schools on demand.

"Originally we had the native-born broadcaster alone at the microphone, but now we make him work with a Danish language master who puts various questions to him in the foreign language. The presence of the Danish teacher is a sort of guarantee that the lesson will be kept to the level of the pupils it is intended for. Special broadcasts in interview form have been arranged with the Swedish broadcasting authorities. For these the listener is not provided with any sort of text, but the interviewer puts his questions in his own language while his foreign partner answers in his. In this way listeners are able to grasp something of what is coming next, and in two such nearly related languages as Swedish and Danish, this continual change-over from one language to another does not seem so artificial as might otherwise be the case."

Mr. G. T. Hankin, H.M.I. (Chairman of the History Committee, Central Council for School Broadcasting, Great Britain) described the organisation of the Central Council and the constitution of its subject committees. Each of these subject committees, he said, was developing its own technique.

"The Music Committee particularly desire to establish direct contact between the born musician who is broadcasting and the class which is listening in a lesson where all do their share. If after this lesson you listen in the Demonstration Hall to the gramophone record of a music lesson you will realise the value of the 'Echo Game' for the attainment of certain definite ends, the importance of the pamphlet for teaching the reading of music, and the skill with which the presence of an assistant in the studio is utilised to drive home certain points and produce the right atmosphere."

The "straight talk" still survived in some subjects, Mr. Hankin said, "notably in science, aided of course by illustrated pamphlets." Discussing the contribution of broadcasting to the teaching of biology he suggested that there were aspects of certain subjects which could better be taught by a voice coming from an impersonal loudspeaker than by a teacher actually present in the class room. This was true in the case of contemporary history also.

With regard to the English Literature broadcasts, he said: "No practical teacher, no matter how well he or she reads prose or poetry, either drama or narrative, can deny the help that broadcasts can be in encouraging children to appreciate the beauty of their own language and in helping them to understand how good reading assists comprehension.

"In modern language broadcasts we have learned that the lesson should be broken into short sections. To listen to a foreign tongue for twenty minutes is a strain to a child of thirteen or fourteen. Changes of method and changes of voice are necessary.

"The Geography committee have largely concentrated on first-hand accounts by travellers, organised on a definite plan. These 'Travel Talks' need very special editing. The traveller may not know how to adapt his style to a youthful audience, and he may not know what points ought to be emphasised from the point of view of the teaching of geography.

"The History Committee have evolved a variety of techniques to suit their special needs. In 'Tracing History Backwards' an expert gives a simple account of some modern

problem—social, economic or political. In the following week a history teacher sketches the growth of that particular problem, or the way in which it has been handled at earlier periods of Britain's history. Sometimes this broadcaster adopts the method of characterization; he pretends to bring to the studio Baron Rollo, a baron of the fourteenth century, or Mr. Pepys of the seventeenth century, or Mr. Addleshaw, a cotton spinner of about 1870.

"In the World History and British History series straight talks are interspersed with 'illustrated talks' and 'dramatic interludes.' Here the straight talk is intended to give those broad generalisations and inter-connections which only a historian can make both simple and convincing. In the 'illustrated talks,' music, songs and quotations from contemporary authors are used to create a vivid picture. All must be significant, not merely entertaining. For example, in a recent broadcast on the War of American Independence the children heard some of the actual songs the rebels sang in the streets and so got an idea of the feeling of the common people. The 'dramatic interlude' is an extension of the same idea. It is an effort to make history come alive to the child.

"The question we have to face on the History Committee is 'Are these interludes History? Are they likely to give to the class anything like an accurate impression?' My reply is that they are more likely to do so than most of the methods ordinarily employed. May I quote Toynbee's 'Study of History'?

'If we are recording the history of our Western Society, we cannot avoid using the mythological proper names of the States—Britain, France, Czechoslovakia and sixty others, and treating these fictitious persons as though they were human beings in personal relation with one another. In fact in viewing and presenting social institutions and recording their work, the use of fiction appears to be an indispensable artifice of thought, and the most blatant forms of the artifice are really the least objectionable because they are the least liable to be mistaken for realities.'

"May I quote another historian looking at the problem from a slightly different angle?

'We must never say that the State desired this or that, or that the community wills this or the Church is

aiming at that, without realising that the only wills that really exist are the wills of the individual human beings who have become members of those bodies.'

"Our dramatic interludes put into the mouths of imaginary characters what Aristotle in the *Poetics* calls 'generalities,' 'the kind of thing that this or that person was apt or bound to say or do.' Such interludes are, I maintain, true history in the ears of the listeners, as accurate as the speeches in Thucydides and less misleading than the 'pathetic fallacies' of the historian."

In conclusion, Mr. Hankin said :

"It is possible that the use of new instruments for teaching may open up new possibilities in education. With the new tools we teachers may find that our craftsmanship may change. To the teacher of the future the skilled use of the material provided through some new medium may be of more importance than the extent of his own knowledge. The best preparation and presentation of that material is therefore a subject not beneath the dignity of this international conference."

Dr. H. Gilomen (Member of the Central Committee, Schweizerische Rundspruch-Gesellschaft, Swiss Broadcasting Company) said that in Switzerland as in other countries, Music, Geography, History, Science and Literature found especial favour for broadcasting purposes. Twenty-five per cent. of their broadcasts were devoted to music.

"It would be rash," Dr. Gilomen said, "to declare of any subject, apart from writing and drawing which are obviously outside our scope, that it is suitable or unsuitable for broadcasting."

"In Geography, for instance, there are certain things that must be left to the teacher : instructions in the principles of geography, in map-reading, in local geography. Yet broadcast talks, in the form of travel accounts, with a fair leavening of geographical and ethnographical information have been well received by the schools."

"Or take science : it has been asserted that broadcasting has nothing to contribute to the teaching of physics. Yet we have broadcast dramatisations of scientific discoveries with a good deal of success."

"In practice, though, we have often found it necessary to have an elaborate draft of a broadcast submitted to us

before we could decide whether or not the subject in question was suitable for broadcasting."

Dr. Gilomen said that the question of form and method was the most important and the most difficult in school broadcasting.

"Scores of experts can supply us with subject-matter, but we are often at a loss to find among them one who can present it in suitable form. Many lecturers labour under inhibitions and repressions, or are introverts, and cannot let themselves go sufficiently to establish contact with their listeners."

There was a further difficulty, peculiar to German Switzerland. Swiss dialect, which itself varied widely from district to district, differed very greatly from literary High German. Consequently manuscripts had quite often to be read by someone other than the author.

Although in Switzerland straight talks had been very largely superseded by dialogues, eye-witness accounts and dramatisations, for certain subjects, especially for Travel Talks, they still found that simple exposition was best. They had abandoned the lesson-form after due trial, but they sometimes had a limited number of children in the studio with the broadcaster. These children questioned him and occasionally supplemented what he said with their own experiences and observations.

"These broadcasts are very popular," Dr. Gilomen said, "both for their fresh and attractive quality and the interest children take in hearing other children broadcasting. But the form has disadvantages. The children have to be rehearsed in the questions they are to put, but they are rarely convincing actors, so that the dialogue sounds artificial. There is a temptation, too, to keep it going too long with the result that the listeners' interest flags.

"On the subject of running commentaries," Dr. Gilomen went on, "I may say that I believe them to be somewhat overrated, especially as regards characteristic noises. Characteristic noises from factories and workshops are not so very characteristic after all."

The value of commentaries, he thought, lay in their immediacy and in the stimulus they gave for further work on the subject. Most of the running commentaries broadcast in German Switzerland suffered from unevenness; high lights were followed by long intervals of dreariness. There was no close-knit unity. Of late they had abandoned actual 'outside broadcasts' and preferred to record characteristic

noises on a steel strip, and to dramatise the subject, the noises recorded then being brought in to supply the acoustical background, the 'noises off.' At other times they had linked up, dramatically, brief portions of exceptionally suitable running commentary.

Count Guido Visconti di Modrone (Italian Broadcasting Company) described the broadcasts of drawing lessons which were a feature of Italian programmes.

"Each pupil is supplied with a sheet of paper ruled in squares, and he traces the drawing according to dictation, his pencil going from point to point across the numbered squares. Not until the final strokes are pencilled in, can the pupil guess what he is drawing. To the objection that this exercise is too mechanical, we reply that the dictation provides only for the outline, and the pupil is required to fill in such details as his imagination may suggest."

In the discussion which followed, Dr. Matousek (Czechoslovak Broadcasting Company) said that he believed strongly in the value of talks on topical events, given not by teachers but by men in close touch with affairs, by journalists and so forth.

Mr. Kuypers (National Institute of Broadcasting, Belgium) said that in Belgium they had difficulty in finding programme space for news while it was still fresh. He asked what times of the day and days of the week had been found most convenient for school broadcasting in other countries.

Mr. Hankin (Central Council for School Broadcasting, Great Britain) said that thousands of questionnaires had been issued to schools asking the best times and days for school broadcasting and the answers had been all different. It was quite impossible to suit all the schools. Broadcasts for infant schools were more acceptable in the mornings, but the afternoon seemed to be more convenient for other broadcasts. There was another difficulty too: the Broadcasting Corporation could not necessarily allot to the schools the times they wanted. In Britain the time-table of broadcasts for Secondary Schools was the most difficult problem.

Dr. Bergman (Swedish Broadcasting Company) described the success they had had in Sweden with running commentaries on the opening of Parliament, visits to factories and museums. He also said that in Sweden they could make good use of gramophone records of English and German broadcasts for their modern language courses, and suggested that the possibilities of international exchange of records should be explored.

Dr. Henz (Austrian Broadcasting Company) supported Dr. Bergman's proposal and said that carefully prepared relays or records of national music would be useful. He suggested further that there might be a "Christmas Greeting" programme for schools with relays from foreign countries.

Mr. W. H. Robinson (National Union of Teachers, Great Britain) proposed a vote of thanks to the delegates for the information they had given on problems of broadcasting in their respective countries.

Mr. Arthur Mason (Australian Broadcasting Commission) in a printed report submitted to the Section, said that talks on mathematics, based on a close co-operation between the school class and the broadcaster, had had a good deal of success in New South Wales. They had been so successful with the primary schools that similar talks were to be broadcast to secondary schools in the coming autumn.

Queensland had made the interesting experiment of broadcasting to primary schools talks on business methods.

In Victoria they had found it useful to record broadcasters on a gramophone tape and to allow the broadcaster to sit with a listening class while the recorded talks were being broadcast. This gave him an opportunity of watching the reaction of children to his broadcast and as a result he was able to make changes in his method of presentation and delivery.

In Victoria also they had broadcast with success a series of talks on English Literature from an actual class-room.

In Western Australia and South Australia, Mr. Mason said, fifteen minutes had proved the best length for most of the series of talks.

Experience had shown that successful broadcasters were usually those who had had considerable teaching experience.

B.—Broadcast Adult Education

ADULT SESSION, FRIDAY, 16TH AUGUST, 10.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

THE IMPORTANCE OF BROADCASTING IN ADULT EDUCATION

Chairman : THE RT. HON. H. A. L. FISHER (WARDEN OF NEW COLLEGE, OXFORD, AND A GOVERNOR OF THE BRITISH BROADCASTING CORPORATION).

Describing the position of broadcasting in Great Britain, Mr. Fisher said :

“Broadcasting may be a formidable instrument of intellectual oppression but, in England, broadcasting is practised against a background of educational freedom.

“The B.B.C. possesses a monopoly, which is granted to it by statute. It is independent of the State, and is studious to preserve its independence. It arranges its own programmes, and it is responsible before the public for them. As it is independent on the one hand, so, on the other, it is studious to safeguard the liberty of opinion in this country. Its policy is to enable every considerable body of opinion in this country to receive its fair share of time in the air, and consequently the educational use of broadcasting in this country is not subject to the difficulties which attend the educational use of broadcasting in countries where education is controlled by the State.

“I am a profound believer in the educational value of broadcasting. Broadcasting is bringing entertainment and instruction to thousands and thousands of homes in this country, and I am confident that the educational level of different nations in Europe will be largely dependent on the intelligent use we are able to make of this wonderful new instrument which has been placed at our disposal by science.”

Dr. Rudolf Henz (Director of Education, the Austrian Broadcasting Company) pointed out that broadcast adult education is no substitute for longer established adult educational facilities, but an addition to them. Dr. Henz went on :

“It is nonsensical to contrast broadcasting and popular education as is still so often done ; they both serve the same purpose, albeit differing in range and method. Undoubtedly that portion of the wireless programme that is

intended merely to entertain is frequently an obstacle to reconciling the two. Yet the teacher offers entertainment occasionally if he would win certain sections of his audience to a serious and methodical pursuit of knowledge. Did broadcasting not include hours of mere relaxation few people would purchase receiving sets, and large sections of the public would not have the opportunity of availing themselves of the educational facilities offered, or even slowly of getting accustomed to items of a higher artistic or intellectual quality. We wireless educationists must, however, persist in demanding that an educational principle be latent even in the entertainment items."

He then described the lines followed in broadcast adult education in Austria.

"Papers read by scientists, explorers and men of letters will always have a greater reach over the wireless than in the lecture hall. We look upon the provision of talks of this nature as a paramount duty, and endeavour to persuade the outstanding intellects of the world to speak at our microphone. In doing so we assist incidentally the scientific societies and educational institutions which co-operate with us in inviting men of note to come to Austria.

"Broadcasting can popularise advances in knowledge which would otherwise be reported only in the pages of scientific journals. We attach the greatest importance to brief reports in the form of daily talks on philosophy, art, science, history, etc. and broadcast also, under the heading of *Wissenschaftliche Nachrichten der Woche* (Scientific news of the week) exclusive reports of the *Akademie der Wissenschaften* on the latest research work by foreign scientists.

"But education is not all serious. For instance there can be Riddle Competitions.

"Broadcasts in which the listener must guess who or what made certain sounds and must then combine initial letters, syllables, etc. in broadcast sentences are among the most popular in our programme, and as at the same time they serve to sharpen the sense of hearing, may well be termed educational."

Discussing the best way of attracting listeners, Dr. Henz said:

"We can determine the educational needs of certain categories of listeners pretty closely. And through the medium of a talk intended for that category we are most likely to reach the individual in that group than through a general talk. Accordingly we have subdivided our talks

programmes very largely of recent years. For example, on Sundays there is a "Geistliche Stunde," an hour dedicated to matters spiritual. For the children, besides other broadcasts we offer a special Juvenile Handicraft Hour, which is quite extraordinarily popular. As well there is a Handicraft Hour, in which greater care and precision are demanded. These two series have been going on for several years and the exhibitions we hold of the work done in them show that their popularity has not diminished. They bear witness to the fact that the right broadcasters can make wireless do work that would seem to be primarily visual.

"Besides literary, scientific, and musical hours for adolescents we have special items for unemployed juveniles including languages and vocational courses in the morning.

"Five half-hours a week are given to questions of interest to women. These are social and educational questions and domestic matters, and cookery. At our 'Ten Years' Jubilee Exhibition last year these lectures drew the largest audiences in the studio attached to the exhibition.

"One hour is set aside each week for talks on children's education. Courses of this kind for young school-teachers are being planned for next year.

"There is a workmen's hour, once a week, in which there are discussions on union matters, relays from factories and workshops, readings of poetry written by workmen, musical items performed by workmen, and so forth.

"Similarly, in special talks for the peasantry we discuss questions that affect them, rural poetry is read, and efforts are made to revive and preserve folk-customs, folk-art and folk-music.

"Recently new problems have arisen in connection with the education of the members of the guilds provided for in our constitution. There are seven of these—namely, agriculture, trade, industry and mining, business and commerce, finance and banking, liberal professions, and civil service. Broadcasting is particularly suited to awakening an *esprit de corps* in these guilds, and I believe this side of our educational work, approaching men as it does on their professional side, to be the most fruitful of all.

"Advice for certain sections of the public is given on Sunday mornings. It includes medical advice, advice to women, to farmers and to allotment holders, and it exhorts people to preserve the natural amenities of the countryside. Moreover, once a week a medical man discusses hygiene, sanitation, and household remedies.

"It is also part of our programme to teach people to appreciate the arts. We have organised a kind of lottery in which the licence numbers of the subscribers are drawn, with 8,000 works of art of varying value as prizes. We promise ourselves more lasting effects though, from our talks on living artists. These are combined with broadcast visits to the studio of the artist in question which is then kept open to the public for a time. We consult the artists' union regarding our choice of artists, taking into consideration the various departments of art.

"During this last year we have also sought to improve the public taste in films. Once a week we discuss films of which the cultural and artistic value has been recognised by the Institut für Filmkultur.

"Our Austrian Ravag Company lays the greatest stress, as does Austrian adult education as a whole, on teaching people to appreciate and cherish their national culture.

"In the field of folk-song particularly we have had great success during the past year with competitions in the singing of local songs, and by a weekly folk-song lesson. No other course broadcast of recent years has aroused such active enthusiasm among the listeners.

"Special hours are given over to political and social questions of the day. To educate people for the new Corporate State and its constitution is one of our chief tasks.

"We see our aim as consisting of letting our people share in the far-reaching intellectual developments of our time; bringing home to them the value of national life, its religion and history, as well as giving them an insight into the lives and the outlook of other peoples and nations. Our aim is to bring them to serve their own nation as well as the cause of international peace.

"Broadcasting can be of the greatest value as an educational vehicle, if it employs the methods peculiar to itself, and is fully aware of the capacities of its listeners."

Dr. Yngve Hugo (Director of Talks, the Swedish Broadcasting Company) discussed the problem of broadcasting controversial matters. He defined three main principles :

"The first. Listeners have a great interest in topical subjects. The more controversial these subjects are, the greater the interest and the desire to get a more impartial

description than is given in the daily comments of the newspapers.

"The second. Broadcasting can treat these questions impartially, and they can be freely discussed without any risk to the neutrality of broadcasting, which is desirable from all points of view.

"The third. It is of very great importance, both for broadcasting itself and for our political and cultural life, that we should have free discussion—that prominent personalities should be allowed to speak about controversial subjects on which they are experts.

"The policy followed by the Swedish Broadcasting Corporation," he went on, "may be stated in the words used by the Royal Commission on Government grants for adult education in Sweden, which reported in 1924.

" 'The experts state that the audiences at popular lectures are greatly interested in the questions of the day, and the time has now come for these (educational) associations to put topical political and religious questions on their programmes. Responsibility for avoiding abuse ought to be transferred from the choice of subject to the speaker himself: his scientific competence, his personal authority and his ability to regard a problem from above. The opinion of the experts was that if the associations for adult education thus attacked those problems, not only the work for adult education, but also our political and cultural life would obtain new stimulus.' "

Dr. Hugo explained what this policy meant in practice. The news bulletins contained topical talks on national and international political as well as cultural subjects. Speaking of the broadcasting of accounts of Parliamentary debates he said :

"These talks have been given in Sweden over a period of nine years without any criticism being raised against them by any political party. The most important political debates took place before the Parliamentary Elections in 1932 and 1934. On these occasions the whole wireless programme from eight o'clock onwards, was reserved for the purpose."

Dr. Hugo then discussed the collaboration between the Broadcasting Authorities and the Adult Education organisations.

"There has been collaboration from the beginning, but

it has been especially close since 1932, when the broadcasting authorities began to organise the activity of listening groups very methodically.

"The development of our listening groups will appear from the following statistics :

SPRING, 1932 :

Social-Political Questions in Sweden To-day.
298 groups.

AUTUMN, 1932 :

Modern Housing. 530 groups.

SPRING, 1933 :

International Co-operation. 650 groups.

WINTER SEASON, 1933-34 :

Swedish Self-Government.	} 1,200 groups.
International Economic Problems.	

WINTER SEASON, 1933-34 :

Modern Swedish Story Tellers.	} 1,500 groups."
Modern Psychology.	

Describing a course on the population question in detail, Dr. Hugo showed how a series was built up of a mixture of objective talks of a scientific nature and discussions in which opinions could be vigorously expressed.

"The dialogue form must be regarded as extremely important. A radio lecture must, of course, be altogether objective. In a debate between two or more people everyone is able to speak freely and call things by their proper names.

"In connection with this population series and in co-operation with the different adult education organisations, groups of listeners will be organised. To these groups as well as to private listeners who are interested, letters will be sent containing special references to the literature on the subjects dealt with, proposals for discussion topics, vocabularies with definitions and explanations of technical terms. The Broadcasting Corporation is issuing a book for the course, comprising material and facts on the population question.

"For listeners with a particular interest the Broadcasting Corporation will finally arrange a special correspondence course. As associates in this correspondence school we

hope to employ students from the Social Science department in our universities. And we also hope that these students will be leaders of their respective listening groups.

"This attempt to organise a correspondence school is the first in the history of Swedish broadcasting. It may well happen that in the future one of the most important contributions to adult educational activities will be a combination of radio and correspondence courses."

Dr. Hugo concluded with a statement of his view on the relations between the State and broadcasting.

"The programme service of broadcasting must not be organised as a Government function, but as an enterprise outside the Government Administration. This means, among other things, that the party having governmental power will not be able to use broadcasting for its own interests. Every party which is numerous enough to have an important and responsible position in Parliament will have the same right to present its points of view by means of broadcasting.

"I wish to emphasise the desirability of each nation being able to discuss openly and dispassionately the topical questions of the day."

Mr. G. A. Siepmann (Director of Talks, British Broadcasting Corporation) analysed the philosophy of those engaged in broadcasting adult education in a democratic country.

"With the invention of wireless we come, almost overnight, upon a situation of revolutionary significance. For the first time in the history of mankind, the public in every country where broadcasting functions comes under the spell of a universal influence. I stress this because when we talk of controversy on the wireless, when we put confidently the claims of free speech, we shall do well to remember how new and complicated is the process of giving practical effect to our beliefs, and to temper our enthusiasm by a realistic attitude to the state of the public mind. How ready, in fact, are we for controversy? Is it not true that a general readiness to hear the other point of view and to admit of open discussion of important issues which touch us at the quick is by no means universally accepted. It is with our heritage out of the past, with ignorance, prejudice, and with the consequences of isolation and limited experience, as much as with our associations for the future, that broadcasting has been concerned."

"In Britain, broadcasting as a monopoly is not likely to survive unless it safeguards its position by a true and constant study of the needs of listeners, and by the achievement of such safeguards of its constitutional position as shall secure that the public has access to it and has the power of influence upon it. By this I do not mean what is commonly termed 'Giving the public what it wants.' There is no occasion to play down to the lowest common denominator of taste and prejudice. Our function is to bring happiness, interest and entertainment, practical advice and scope for controversy within the reach of all. The universal factor in broadcasting makes of it a strong unifying factor. Despite the necessary processes of change that are implicit in education the services which broadcasting can render make for stability.

"As ours is a democratic country it is for broadcasting to attempt to make some contribution to the achievement of a democratic culture. What form that will take, no man can yet say. We can only proceed empirically by studying the emergent needs of a public differing widely in interests and standards of intelligence and, if we reckon with the past, in opportunity for self-advancement.

"What, in fact, do we mean by freedom of speech on the wireless? Broadcasting works within necessary limits of space and of time. Every decision to include speakers of different points of view is to that extent arbitrary. We work within a framework of limited hours. Moreover, what in fact do you mean when you ask that on controversial issues you shall hear the other point of view? There is no one other point of view. There may be ten, twenty, thirty different points of view. We cannot admit that political minorities have any claim upon our time, considering the limitations within which we necessarily work; and yet it is the essence of democracy that these voices should be heard. It is on the one hand a sense of fair play which makes it desirable that Communist or Fascist, or what not, shall at some time have their say, and on the other the recognition of the inherent danger of any instrument or monopoly dictating who shall and who shall not give voice. The criterion for us surely is the extent of interest and desire on the part of the public to hear this or that. By this we should be governed. It is not for broadcasting to act as arbiter in the matter of what men should hear or say. It has no right to moral or intellectual censorship other than the interpretation of the

about life after death, the failure of education to keep pace with progress in other spheres, amateurism and professionalism in sport, the New Russia, and many other subjects which in past years would have been avoided. Where controversial subjects are selected for broadcasting every aspect must be represented; the only restrictions are those imposed by the dictates of good taste. The aim of the Commission is to encourage individual listeners to think for themselves; political or class propaganda is avoided."

Demonstration—Educational Broadcasting

In order to give delegates an opportunity of gaining knowledge of the aims and scope of educational broadcasting in Great Britain, arrangements were made for records of excerpts from the programmes to be played each day during the Conference.

1. MUSIC AND MOVEMENT
by Ann Driver
2. JUNIOR MUSIC : SINGING LESSON
by Sir Walford Davies
3. TRAVEL TALK : A NEGRO COTTON FARM
by J. H. Kirk
4. TRAVEL TALK : COCONUTS ON CORAL ISLANDS
by Clifford Collinson
5. TRAVEL TALK : MANGROVE SWAMPS
by Granville Squiers
6. WORLD HISTORY : CAXTON'S PRINTING PRESS
Dramatic Interlude by Rhoda Power
7. WORLD HISTORY : THE CRUSADERS
Dramatic Interlude by Rhoda Power
8. BRITISH HISTORY : THE GREAT WHITE COMPANY
Dramatic Interlude by Rhoda Power
9. TRACING HISTORY BACKWARDS : UNEMPLOYMENT
by Commander King-Hall and K. C. Boswell
- EARLY STAGES IN FRENCH
by Monsieur E. M. Stéphan

11. GERMAN DIALOGUE
by Dr. Ernst Deissmann and Frau Herrmann
12. DRAMATIC READING : MACBETH
by Norman Shelley and Gladys Young
13. POETRY READING
by Carleton Hobbs and Robert Harris

ADULT EDUCATION

1. INDUSTRIAL BRITAIN
by Professor John Hilton
2. SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY : CUSTOM AND CONDUCT
by Dr. H. A. Mess

Dr. Rudolf Henz (Director of Education, Austrian Broadcasting Company) brought the following records to illustrate sound effects and 'outside broadcasts' which have been used in Austrian programmes :

1. The heartbeats of a mouse, a rabbit, a guinea-pig, a pigeon.
2. A man's voice, first with the higher frequencies omitted, and then with the lower frequencies omitted.
3. A jet of water projected against a membrane acting as a microphone.
4. An 'outside broadcast' from a Maultrommel-maker's workshop.
5. 'Outside broadcasts' from a village school and a town school.

" City of weathered cloister and worn court ;
 Grey city of strong towers and clustering spires ;
 Where art's fresh loveliness would first resort ;
 Where lingering art kindled her latest fires.

Where, on all hands, wondrous with ancient grace,
 Grace, touched with age, rise works of goodliest mien,
 Next Wykeham's art obtain their splendid place
 The zeal of Inigo, the strength of Wren."

—LIONEL JOHNSON.

From " Oxford and Poetry," by R. Kennard Davis, M.A.

DEPARTMENT OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Chairman : PROFESSOR W. McCLELLAND (University of St. Andrews).

Secretary : W. H. SPIKES (N.U.T.).

Place of Meeting : The Taylor Institute.

FIRST SESSION, TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST, 10 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

Topic : "SELECTION FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION."

Methods of Selection for Admission to American Universities

Professor Paul Monroe (Teachers' College, Columbia University)

"Entrance to American colleges has always been based on one major consideration; namely, the ability of the student to carry the prospective collegiate work. Establishing the entrance requirements upon this basis removes two complicating factors which in most European countries are found involved in the question of entrance to higher educational institutions. The first is a test or examination of work accomplished in the intermediate or secondary schools below the level of the university or college. The second is the use of such tests from the diagnostic point of view for the purpose of distributing the students among various high or professional institutions or various programmes of study. While these two academic needs have always existed in American institutions and have been met more or less directly by means of examinations or tests similar to those used as a means of controlling entrance to the college, yet, except in cases where the certification system has existed, these three functions have not generally been tied up together in the case of American institutions as they frequently have been in the European educational systems.

However, there are two distinct systems controlling the

admission of students into colleges which have prevailed during the last sixty years and which now give general character to the entire higher educational system in the United States. These two systems are : first, that of the examination of candidates by the respective institutions interested, or, in two instances, by external authorities ; and in the second place the certification system of admission which prevails in all of the State universities and, as a matter of fact, to a large extent tends to dominate the entire educational system in those States where the State university exists. The certification system may be said to be the system of latest development, and it undoubtedly has the most general acceptance of the systems used. The admission by credit system is based on the theory that the entire state educational system is a unit and that the student completing satisfactorily the secondary school curriculum is entitled to enter upon the higher educational course without further test or examination. The admission by credit presupposed some kind of an examination by the secondary school whose graduate is being admitted to the college. An inspection is conducted either by State educational authorities or by appropriate authorities of the State university, or, in a few cases, by the endowed college or university.

With the standardisation of these courses on the basis of twenty units, each unit representing the successful pursuit of a course five days in the week throughout the year, the secondary school programme became very definitely defined, and the requirements for admission to the college in a similar way very definitely established at twenty secondary units representing, as was customary, the four-year programme of five different subjects carried simultaneously throughout the year.

It is of little point to go over the long history of nearly three centuries to show how this conception of the college course and of the tests for the appropriate entrance on this course gradually broadened. It is sufficient to see what has happened in the last few years and to get a glimpse of the present problem and the various attempts at solution. While there was a gradual tendency towards broadening (1) of the social needs which made demands upon the college ; (2) of the slow process of change in the college curriculum to meet these needs ; (3) of the still more retarded change of entrance requirements in adjustment to these curriculum changes, suffice it to say that there was always a lag in each

one of these processes. It is interesting to note, however, that a very considerable cancellation of this lag came from the change in the secondary schools themselves with the establishment of the high school or the popular secondary school and its growth in great numbers, particularly in the last third of the nineteenth century. The curriculum of the secondary school tended to respond to the changes in society much more readily and quickly than did the changes in the college curriculum, and by that very fact tended to force the changes in the college curriculum so that a pressure on that curriculum came to be exerted from both sides ; from the side of social needs making demands upon the graduates, and from the side of the secondary curriculum making demands on behalf of the entrants. The broadening of the accrediting system mentioned above, together with the establishment of a college entrance examination board, were both answers to this social change.

But even with these two forces ameliorating the rigidity of the entrance requirements, there arose demands for greater flexibility with reference to the entrance to colleges. This greater flexibility has been provided with several schemes most of which are still in the process of trial or of experimentation.

Bearing in mind that the student may have pursued a wide diversity of subjects in a programme which involves little logical organisation and may be proceeding to four additional years of collegiate study in which there may be also an absence of logical organisation or of definite standards of requirements, the question then becomes either that of determining the ability of the student to carry on such a programme as he may select or of determining what is best educationally for the student. Since he has already pursued for four years an educational course which may have little logical connection with the course which follows, the very large number of eliminations of students from the American colleges, particularly in the Freshman and Sophomore years, is a very clear indication that this situation is a real problem and not an imaginary one.

One device borrowed from English precedent is that of the honour course. Under this scheme the student was expected, or required, to specialise in one or more selected subjects. While heavy requirements and high standards would be required in these honour subjects, only passing

or nominal grades would be required in the other subjects. Such selection of honour subjects was not to be required from all students, a majority of whom pursued the regular course, submitted to the regular tests and complied with the regular requirements, but in case a student wished to specialise more highly than required of the average student, it was possible for him to do so, thus greatly minimising the failures of the unrestricted elective system.

The second device was that of the tutorial system. This system had little or nothing to do with admission to the college, and hence does not enter into our survey, but it should be noted as a device for solving the general educational problem of the intellectual welfare of the student, though not directly connected with the problem of fitting him to carry on any particular course of college study. This device was also an imitation of the English practice, was limited to future institutions which could afford the additional expense, and, as in the case of the honour subjects, only indirectly affected the problem of the entrance of the student into college.

The third device, more specifically related to entrance examinations, but similar in character to the above device, is that of selective examination. By this scheme the student is permitted to select a certain study or a limited number of studies, say two or three or four instead of the entire range of college entrance requirements, and to demonstrate his ability to conduct the college work in the future by the mastery which he shows of these special subjects. The chief difference between this scheme and that of the honour student is that it tended to carry this high degree of specialisation in a few subjects down into the secondary school rather than to limit it altogether to collegiate work after the student was admitted.

The fourth device was that of a special college erected within a college. This device owes its origin largely to the fact that the entering classes in American colleges became so huge that it was necessary to provide a more distinctive education for at least a selected few; thus a college was organised within a college, somewhat as when the honour students or the students admitted by selective examination really constituted a corps of students differently selected from the great mass of the student body. Such an experimental college was really an attempt to solve the entire college

problem rather than again to solve the problem of the college entrance.

A more common device, however, is that of special arrangement with the secondary schools. Many secondary schools grow up with specially formulated purposes, with highly trained and high selected teachers and yet quite definitely opposed to following the ordinary curriculum of the secondary school. For instance, such a school might omit from its curriculum the study of Latin or of any other one subject such as is usually required in the college entrance examinations. The question was how could the students graduated from such an experimental school, admittedly superior students, be admitted to the college when they lack some of the essential elements required for admission. This problem was solved on the one hand by special arrangement created between a number of leading universities, and on the other with a number of such experimental schools. In such an arrangement very much depends upon the character of the administration and upon the instruction in the secondary school involved. In most cases these are of superior character. This admittedly is a device which applies only to a limited number of institutions and does not solve the entire problem, but it is a device which has gone a long way towards modifying the traditional custom.

The sixth device is that of the special test or new type examination. This device grew out of the general objections to, or criticisms of, the old type of examinations which were established as tests for entrance to college. It was demonstrated that the old or essay type of examinations had very many defects all growing out of the fact that the estimation of the value of these examinations was very largely a subjective one and that the subjective factors were so numerous, so varied and so definitely inherent in the system that the examination system was little better than a matter of chance. During twenty years now much has been accomplished towards the substitution of the objective type of examination. What this substitution has done, however, is to demonstrate largely the fallibility of the old system rather than to prove the infallibility of the new tests.

However, very broad experimentation with the new type of examinations has brought to light the fact that all of the devices above mentioned are only devices.

Now, all at once, we see clearly that the real problem we have to deal with is that of the intellectual and psychological development of the student ; and that all of these devices merely deal with some subordinate problems of administration ; that in the consideration of these problems the real welfare of the student has oftentimes been overlooked and that much of the education given him in the lower stages is, from the point of view of the higher stages, quite useless ; as in turn much that is given him in the higher stages is, from the point of view of later life, quite useless.

The new method for getting at the problem of entrance to college is through what is termed the continuous record or the continuous record card. Not simply one examination, but the totality of all examinations throughout the educational experience of the youth must be taken into account. Furthermore, not simply his record in examinations should be considered, but his record in class, in sports, in extra curricula activities, and, if possible, a record by each of his teachers *on the development, eliminations and substitutions in the interest, attitude, and activities of the youth throughout his school experience.* These are to be kept rather voluminously on record cards. This continuous record is to be placed at the service of the college administration responsible for deciding on the future of the youth. It has been discovered that there are a number of cases entirely rejected by examination that through other evidence of their activities, interests, and abilities have proven to be entirely competent to profit by a college education. In fact, some instances have been discovered of students who were in the group of near genius that have been rejected by the examination system, also it has been discovered that many a youth has been compelled to spend much energy and time, which to him later have been demonstrated to have been spent on useless forms of education. It is to meet this situation that the continuous record has been evolved ; while it would not be held that this is the last stage or the ultimate form of the test of admission into college, it is as far as experience of American College administration and investigation has lead to the present. So at present the device chiefly favoured by those who have given attention to this problem is the device of 'the continuous record card' for the sake of determining whatever may be useful to the student as the form of education favoured for him."

The Principles regulating in France the Admission to Universities and Higher Technical Institutions and their Application

A. Desclos (Directeur-Adjoint, Office National des
Universités et Ecoles Françaises, Paris)

M. DESCLOS discussing the French tradition said : " By *l'enseignement supérieur* is meant that whole part of the educational system which reaches the University standard. Almost all its institutions are State supported and State controlled. Even the private institutions are modelled closely on those controlled by the State. The Universities proper are under the Minister of Education ; the Higher Technical Institutions are under the separate Ministries of Commerce, Agriculture, Public Works, etc. They all form a part of a State system, not isolated, but linked up with other steps of the educational ladder. The details of their administration are in the hands of the Conseil supérieur de l'instruction publique, advisory to the Minister. The scheme of government is submitted to Parliament, which votes the necessary funds. The eighteen Universities are all alike, except in size, just as every secondary school is on the same model. The Technical Institutions must be organised differently.

The three objects of *l'enseignement supérieur* are :—1. The advancement of learning. 2. The spread of learning. 3. The provision of training for the learned professions. The College de France serves ends 1 and 2. It has no examinations and awards no degrees. The Universities serve all three objects. The Higher Technical Institutes are only concerned with the third aim, e.g. L'Institut National Agronomique. There are thus four types of student, viz. :—

- (a) Students entirely free, attending the " public courses " of lectures given by research Fellows.
- (b) Students who attend closed courses but work for no degrees. A certain amount of qualification is required of these, though little beyond a general ability to follow the lectures.
- (c) Students who aim at degrees in the Universities, for whom there is a very strict standard of admission.

For these the completion of a secondary school course is of paramount importance, the course being judged to give the all-round general culture 'to which we are so passionately attached.'

- (d) Students who aim at a definite profession, for whom the qualifications for admission are still stricter."

How University Entrance Requirements react on the Schools

James H. Steel (Headmaster, Allan Glen's School, Glasgow)

"There is a sore temptation for a schoolmaster when asked to speak about public examinations of any kind to indulge rather recklessly his gifts of satire and invective. On more than one occasion in the past I have myself found the temptation quite irresistible. To-day I propose to be less headlong, a little more cold-blooded.

My subject is 'The reactions of University Entrance Examinations upon the work of Secondary Schools.' Very clearly, the justification of University entrance examinations lies in the contention that candidates must be tested as to their fitness to enter upon University courses of study. It is their prognostic value which gives such examinations any relevance they have in the scheme of education. And what is their prognostic value? Luckily a very complete answer to that question is forthcoming. As some of you know, an important committee of the Scottish Council for Research in Education has been investigating the reliability of University entrance examinations as prognoses and the publication of its findings is a matter of a few months. I shall not anticipate that report unless to say that matriculation examinations are, it would seem, a surprisingly poor indication of the success or failure that awaits the candidates in the courses of University study they pursue. The prognostic value of University entrance examinations is, indeed, no greater and no less than that of entrance examinations for Secondary Schools.

I might relevantly ask at this point whether fitness to benefit from University courses differs in any important respect from fitness to enter upon an educated adult life of any kind. Of course, there are special abilities, but these

separate University men differ from each other just as widely as separate University men from bankers, accountants, business managers, actuaries, works managers, stock-brokers or engineers. It ought to be no hardship for those secondary pupils who do not propose to enter a University if they are made to take the same courses of instruction as those who do.

As things are, University matriculation examinations react on the work of the secondary school (1) by prescribing the subjects to be studied and determining their relative importance in the curriculum, and (2) by determining the content of these subjects.

First then the subjects to be studied. These are generally English, Foreign Languages, Mathematics, Science, History. It cannot be said that they have been selected casually. 'The proper study of mankind is man'—therefore, English, History, Foreign Languages. We live in an objective world of whose laws we must know something if we are to live at all. Thus the relevance of Science and Mathematics. All of the subjects can be made to excite curiosities in most pupils, and stimulate them to further exertion by satisfying the curiosities they evoke. Their appearance in the list of subjects to be examined and, therefore, studied, is almost an affair of natural selection, the least 'natural' of the subjects being, incidentally, foreign languages, and in particular the dead ones.

But there is also the world of beauty. University authorities cannot escape some share of the blame for the comparative neglect of art and music in British secondary schools. Even now art and music are not permitted to enjoy equality with English, Mathematics, Foreign Languages and Science, as main subjects. It is a pitiful condition of affairs, not to be justified by the plea that art and music are, after all, largely recreational or by the other plea that we must not overload the curriculum. The intellectual demand made upon the pupil by art and music is just as great as that made by any of the more favoured subjects, and we shall best simplify the curriculum by simplifying the content of the subjects which it comprises. In the school of which I have the honour to be head, I am fortunate in being able to obtain term examination scores in Art and Mathematics which have been obtained by objective marking. Recently, having selected a highly homogeneous group of fifty boys in the third year of their secondary course, I correlated their scores in Art and Mathematics with their

Intelligence Quotients. The difference in the correlation coefficients was .01.

One is almost ashamed to speak of the position of the so-called 'practical' subjects in British secondary schools. In my own school tradition decrees that all the boys be made to take a course in Workshop Practice with an accompanying course in Technical Drawing. Many of them take two and three years' courses in pottery, leather-work, linoprints, book-binding, metal-work, stencilling and printing. My observation has taught me that practical subjects can be made highly cultural, and that the teaching of cultural subjects has everything to gain by becoming highly practical.

There remain to be considered the reactions of University entrance requirements on the content of the subjects taught in British Secondary Schools. Perhaps the most serious of these reactions concern the subject called English. A matriculation test in this unfortunate subject generally includes what is called an Essay, a passage in prose or verse for 'appreciation,' some questions on English literature, and some on the structure of English words.

And how shall we defend the essay as a school institution? How often has the average adult occasion to write anything which resembles it? Only at those dread moments in his life when he is asked and agrees to write a 'paper.' Who among us would pretend to be able to score a set of essays, and score the same set a fortnight later in such fashion as to secure a higher correlation between the two markings of more than .5? When does an essay deserve full marks? Has any essay written in this country by a schoolboy ever obtained them? Has a schoolboy's essay ever received less than no marks, and if not, why not? Does anyone know what the reactions of the theme on the expression of it are for different boys and for the same boy at different times? Why are the 'original' essays of schoolboys so like one another?

When I asked a moment ago who among us would claim to be able to mark schoolboys' essays with perfect or near-perfect reliability, I should have made a reservation. It is actually possible to mark the ordinary compositions of schoolboys reliably and validly, but not by methods generally used or known. For the past three years I have been engaged in investigating the possibility of making authentic analytic tests in English composition. Such tests have been made, and ample statistical support for their validity is in my possession. I do not know whether my experience is

singular, but I have found the relating of analytic tests to criteria of generally accepted validity by far the most difficult part of the work. Clearly no analytic test in Composition has any validity unless the scores made by pupils undergoing the test correlate highly with the scores of the same pupils in a series of 'free' compositions which are marked so as to disclose composition ability and nothing else. You will thus see how the evolving of a method of scoring free compositions reliably and validly became a condition of the success of my investigations. Validly—that is, the markings must assess accurately what is generally accepted by competent people as composition ability.

It was irrelevant to my purpose that the method of marking should be simple. If the number of people who could apply the method with success were sufficient to do the markings in the test to be applied in the experiment, my purpose would be served. I should say, however, that the number of people not engaged in the experiment who have successfully tried the method is astonishingly great. Their testimony, as you would expect, is that, whatever value the method possesses as a means of reliably scoring free compositions, its value as a teaching instrument is indisputable since it proceeds by way of giving credits for easily ascertainable merits and imposing penalties for easily recognised faults.

I do not propose to announce the method to-day, for that would be an irrelevancy. It is enough to say that, to test its reliability, I did the obvious thing—I marked two sets of compositions twice, with a fortnight's interval between the markings. My first double marking gave a correlation of .86, my second, a correlation of .95. A colleague obligingly backed my efforts by marking twice two sets of compositions, using the same methods of scoring as I had done. In his case, the correlations given by the two markings were .94 and .96.

Obviously the next thing to do was to set two examiners to mark the same composition independently, and by the method spoken of. Three sets of compositions on varying themes were scored by the Senior English Master of Allan Glen's School and by myself. My colleague had no knowledge of the method of scoring until just before he began his first marking. The correlations of the two sets of scores were .82, .87, .85.

One of the most unfortunate reactions of University entrance tests is the obscuring of the importance of oral

composition in the schools. Owing largely to the vogue of written examinations in English it is still necessary to plead for the systematic training of older pupils in the technique of oral expression. Oral composition is an art in itself with its own sanctioned forms of sentence-structure, its permitted phrases and ellipses, its choice of words apt to the immediate situation and audience. In the course of a lifetime all of us talk far more than we write, yet most of us write much better than we talk. For all pupils in post-primary courses, therefore, oral composition should be the subject of organised exercises, never as an oral version of written speech, but for its own sake and as having its own special usages.

Until recently I had assumed that the business of making a test in accuracy, completeness, and speed of Reading Comprehension would be best accomplished by the direct and seemingly simple method of setting a passage in prose and verse, prescribing all the questions that the passage would yield to discover the pupils' understanding of it, and scoring the test by computing the correct answers achieved by the pupil within a given time. About six months ago, again seeking a criterion to which I might relate an analytic test, this time a test in Reading Comprehension, I prepared three passage tests (call them Z_1 , Z_2 , Z_3) which were tried out on a group of a hundred boys in a famous Scottish secondary school. These were scored in the ordinary way, and, on the assumption that the 'pooled' marks in the three tests might be an indication of a general power of comprehension as tried by the conventional passage test, the marks in Z_1 , Z_2 , and Z_3 were summed for each pupil. This gave a new array of marks (call it Z_s). When the correlation tables were prepared, they showed the correlation of Z_1 scores and Z_2 scores to be .39, those of Z_1 and Z_3 to be .44, and those of Z_2 and Z_3 to be .44. But the correlation of Z_1 and Z_s scores was .72, that of Z_2 and Z_s .77, and that of Z_3 and Z_s .79. The partial correlations were, intelligence being held constant:—

$$\sqrt{Z_1 Z_2 \cdot I} = .24$$

$$\sqrt{Z_1 Z_3 \cdot I} = .24$$

$$\sqrt{Z_2 Z_3 \cdot I} = .29$$

I may say that the teachers of the boys who sat the tests were shown the tests before they were used and pronounced them satisfactory. In the coming autumn I propose to apply a series of University entrance comprehension tests

to a suitable group of pupils in order to find out wherein my passage tests failed!

Of the reactions of University matriculation tests on the content of the other subjects of our secondary school curricula, I cannot pretend to speak with authority. In my own school the University entrance requirements make the study of a foreign language compulsory. Therefore, Latin, French, and German are studied there as they are in other schools. I well know the drastic changes in subject-matter and method which would be introduced into these studies if we were free agents. Meanwhile, languages are thoroughly unpopular among the boys.

I am somewhat distressed to find the attitude of my colleagues in the Mathematical Department of the school to the University preliminary requirements so uncompaining, indeed benevolent. Perhaps the examinations need a drastic stiffening up!

In Science our curriculum goes so far beyond the requirements of the preliminary examinations of the Universities that we are able to do some quite interesting and valuable work. Indeed, to go beyond these requirements in one or two subjects seems to me to be the best way of escaping the worst effects of their influence.

In the meantime the Universities are faced with the alternative of simplifying their existing type of examinations so drastically that their continued existence would be a matter of no moment or of setting entrance examinations about whose prognostic value there could be no doubt."

College Entrance Trends in the United States

Professor Carroll D. Champlin (Pennsylvania State College)

"Until 1875 the American colleges and universities admitted students by examination only. The educational literature of this period, however, began to reveal a growing suspicion of the validity of this requirement. In 1871 the University of Michigan had established the precedent of admitting candidates who presented transcripts of marks indicating creditable secondary school attainment. As this departure from tradition produced no tragic effect on the scholastic reputation of Michigan's State University, other institutions fell in line and soon modified their

admission practices. Certain fundamental subjects were required of all applicants—as for example, a certain amount of English, Mathematics or Latin.

During the half century from 1875 to 1925 the following were among the leading admission devices :—

1. College board examinations.
2. The institution's own examination.
3. A transcript of secondary school grades.
4. The diploma of the preparatory school.
5. The personal recommendation of the principal.
6. Private conference and special oral examination.

All of these methods are subject to criticisms that warrant sober consideration.

In 1927 the University of Chicago instigated an investigation of student failures, and a vigorous effort was made to improve the work of the student body. Previously a High School average of 81 had been required. This was raised to 85, and additional scholarships were offered to induce students to enter. This brought favourable results ; but within two years there was another slump in the quality of work done. It was discovered that the faculty had pushed up its standard, which seems to have invalidated the experiment.

In the United States we have been seeking three things :—

- I. We have been attempting to improve the quality of the educational process throughout the school system.
- II. We have been seeking to reach more young people and to provide them with the enriching experiences of university life.
- III. We are trying to reconstruct gradually both the college and the secondary school so as to realise the double value of scholarship and democracy.

These aims have led us to reform our admission methods during the past ten years. It is safe to say that the trend of the last decade has been to adopt one or more of the following procedures :—

1. Psychological examinations.
2. Tests of aptitudes and specialised abilities.
3. Personality-rating inventories.

4. Comprehensive examinations.
5. General cumulative record of all school work.
6. Selecting the most promising candidates from the upper fractional division of the graduating classes of accredited schools.

This application of scientific techniques has led us to ascertain the factors that contribute to Freshmen maladjustments. There have been dozens of investigations of the elements involved in academic failure. There is a decidedly striking movement to study scientifically the causes and conditions of both failure and success. The titles of a few such studies will be presented as representative of this tendency.

1. The Mental Attainment of College Students in Relation to Previous Training.
2. Testing and Training Inferior Freshmen.
3. A Study of the Causes of Scholastic Deficiencies of Engineering Students.
4. Background Educational Factors Conditioning College Success.
5. A Diagnostic and Remedial Study of Potential and Actual Failures.
6. The Permanency of High School Learning.

A few additional titles stress the attention given to the several subject-matter fields.

1. The Reading Attainments of College Freshmen.
2. Errors in the English Composition Mechanics of Freshmen.
3. The Algebra Disabilities of College Students.
4. Abilities Fundamental to the Study of Geometry.

The outcome has been a greater definiteness in our understanding of the difficulties that beset the college Freshman. The sources of the disorder are rooted deep, and it will take large-scale co-operation and long-range planning to remedy the many evils.

Our earnest desire to salvage the wavering adolescent has led us to experiment with the Junior College, where the talents, capacities and peculiar interests of these post-secondary grade students are explored, examined and

evaluated. We are improving our methods of handling, advising and supervising these critically-aged students, and we are getting favourable and measurable results.

All of this requires the formulation of a new philosophy of American education. The revision of aims, purposes and ideals is a fruitful enterprise, and we shall clarify the college entrance issue at least moderately by introducing a few significant postulates.

1. A college education should be accessible for all who are eager for its advantage and able to meet its requirements.
2. The college level represents the climax of the intellectual and cultural development of the student.
3. The college exists not to exclude the mediocre mind so much as to serve those who have scholastic aspirations.
4. Educational measures should be adopted that will generate success.
5. The university campus is to be the training camp of personality and character.
6. Not only should the spiritual heritage be transmitted at its best, but a new and better social heritage should be developed.
7. The cost of education should be computed in terms of the cost to society as a whole, and not merely to the student or the State.
8. Responsibility rests not merely with the college and the High School, but also with the home, the parents and the community involved.
9. There must be no waste of public money in any aspect of the business of education.
10. Failure is merely an administrative device; efforts should be made to work out a system that presupposes success.

In the U.S. we have learned that certain avoidable factors have interfered with the successful pursuit of an academic career. The prejudices of High School instructors and the eccentricities of university professors leave more than a little human wreckage in their wake. Arbitrary rules and iron-clad policies retard the progress of deserving students. Impersonal management and indifferent attitudes are destructive forces to be set aside.

Two aspects of the problem have received particular attention :—

1. The process of orientation.
2. The programme of teacher training.

We have a formidable literature devoted to the orientation of the student. Numerous experiments have brought material benefits. The college is now better prepared to assimilate its novitiates, who anticipate their entrance by means of vicarious discipline. Thus the shock of the sharp break is relieved, and the Freshman's prospects for success and survival are increased.

There is no system of state certification for college teaching, but there is a growing belief that the young instructor will do a better type of teaching when his general education is supplemented by such courses as :—

1. The Problems of College Instruction.
2. The Psychology of Adolescence.
3. College Personnel Problems.
4. Educational Statistics.
5. Educational Experimentation.
6. The Philosophy of Education.

It is the conviction of American education that the school should be of the greatest service to the largest number of deserving boys and girls. Standards we must have, and the process of selection is inescapable, but it is our national ambition to practice what we preach in our educational theory—that the public school is democracy's best equipped agent for enriching the lines and increasing the practical efficiency of the rank and file of our people. And for this reason the 'College Entrance Trends in the U.S.' are what I have tried to describe here so briefly."

The Economic Factor

W. H. Spikes (National Union of Teachers)

"Our Chairman reminded us two years ago that the University should be the growing point of the cultural life of the community. I wish briefly to indicate how and why the English Universities, by their method of admission, make impossible the realisation of this ideal.

In the first place, the admission is far too narrowly confined to the sons, and daughters, of the well-to-do.

Permit me to verify this statement by statistics published by the English Board of Education. I round off the figures for your convenience.

The annual intake of our secondary schools is 100,000 (92,490). Of this annual intake more than nine-tenths enter state-aided secondary schools. The less than one-tenth enter independent schools, unaided by the State, admission to which presupposes parental ability to pay fees of the order of £160 a year.

The annual intake of our universities is 12,000 (11,813). Of this annual intake two-thirds (62.8 per cent.) come from the one-tenth of the secondary school population, i.e. from the independent schools.

This ancient University of Oxford, admitting 1,600 (1,586) students a year, admits only 370 (367) from State-aided secondary schools, and almost all of these are winners of scholarships or in receipt of State aid as intending teachers. It might be thought that this is the result of an aristocratic tradition. London University, however, which is usually regarded as innocent of such a tradition, admits but 27.2 per cent. of its students from State-aided secondary schools.

Were it not for the 300 State scholarships awarded annually, and the 1,500 State-aided intending teachers admitted each year, it would be plain for all to see that our English universities make the economic factor of paramount importance in their admission of students. Our universities are still the preserve of a small and privileged class in the community. They are not a growing point for the cultural life of the whole community. Two-thirds, and often more, of their students are admitted on a means test, designed to exclude those who were unwise in the choice of their parents.

This analysis is strengthened by the fact that the majority of our secondary school pupils leaves school at sixteen, for they are compelled to leave by economic pressure. The ultimate responsibility for this truncation of the careers of hundreds of most promising pupils rests with the community. The tremendous weight of the economic factor in determining admission to the University is the responsibility, at least in part, of the University itself. Its standard of life is traditionally that of the country gentleman. It is a standard which might well be brought into closer adjustment to the means of the modest professional man or minor civil servant.

It would perhaps be unwise to suggest to what extent

this emphasis of the economic factor is deliberate. There are many who would restrict admission to the University because the professions are overcrowded. This is to take a narrow and vocational view of the function of a university. These folk, had they had their way, would presumably have arrested the mental development of mankind as soon as it served to satisfy man's simple material needs. But man does not live by bread alone. His æsthetic and spiritual needs promoted a mental development far beyond that stage. And so it is with a community. It is undoubtedly true that we could maintain our present standards of material well-being with a trained élite far smaller than we possess to-day. But for the æsthetic and spiritual needs of a community there can never be too many well-trained and highly educated men and women.

As a matter of practical politics, however, the University must be selective in its method of admission. Its teaching power, its facilities for study and research, its honourable traditions are pearls too precious to be cast before swine, or even to be made free with by robust athletes of somewhat limited intellect.

At present the theory is that a young student of eighteen or nineteen who has received a good general education in a secondary school, and has a good character and a healthy interest in intellectual pursuits, can proceed to the University. I have shown how the economic factor denies this opportunity, in fact, to all but a very few of those who are not well-to-do.

The universities make things even harder for these few, and those like them in everything except success in open scholarship competition, by the control they exercise over the secondary school curriculum. It was a sad day for English secondary education when its examination system was put into the hands of the universities. In the independent schools the examination loses its terrors. It is taken, on the average, a year later than in the State-aided school. In the latter it is given so great an emphasis by those who govern and those who administer our schools, and even by some who teach in them, that it becomes the isolated purpose of education up to the age of fifteen or sixteen. And thereafter another period of intense preparation for examination begins. On the results of the second school examination, conducted in the schools by the universities, depends the award of the 300 State scholarships which alone provide for several thousands of pupils an opportunity of a university career.

Candidates are submitted for this examination as young as possible, so that they may take it a second, a third, and even a fourth time before they exceed the age limit. They are allowed no rest or respite. The same narrow syllabus must be worked at all over again, two or three times, year after year, in order that perchance success may be won at last. This pressure and drive, characteristic of the sixth forms, spreads downward through the school, so that pupils may reach the sixth form as young as possible.

The result is clearly foreseen. A history tutor here in Oxford told me recently: 'The essays of the candidates from such and such a public school are delightful to read; they show originality and independence of thought. The candidates from the State-aided schools have never had time to read anything except a few standard text-books.'

Let me conclude by pleading with our English universities to cast their net more widely, to diminish the importance of the economic factor, and to give the pupils in the State-aided schools a fair chance to learn something of what education means. There are universities in other lands where these difficulties have long since been overcome, and where it may more truly be said than in England that the university is the growing point of the cultural life of the whole community."

SECOND SESSION, 2.0-4.30 P.M.

Topic : "The University in a Changing World."

Freedom in the University

Dr. John Murray (Principal, University College of the South-West, Exeter)

"Freedom is still the major need of civilisation. And it is likely so to remain, despite the dictatorships.

'Oh, Freedom is a noble thing;
It maketh men to have liking.'

Liking is everything: the key of action and character. What are the notes of civilised life but inventiveness, imaginativeness, diversity of tastes and efforts, individualisation carried to the extreme point, and all going on in the

comfort of mutual goodwill? What is civilisation but the various ways and shapes of life, sought for the love of them, backed up by conviction, each a man's own creation, made by his force, though smiled upon by others?

The dictatorships need not disquiet the lovers of freedom. Dictators buy their power—with what? With freedom. If they tyrannise, it is at the cost of liberating. Mankind acquiesces in any rule, mild or strict, even the strictest, on a condition: it must give at least as much freedom as it takes. Dictatorship can be a crisis of emancipation. It is thus with three great dictatorships—Russia, Italy and Germany. Each was a deliverance, and each is felt as such by millions. The gifts of Bolshevism thrilled Russia. What were they? Relief from the old régime and the War, and new hope for the future. As long as the thrill lasts, Stalin may regulate as he likes. Fascism delivered Italy from the threat of chaos and revolution, and from the futility of its post-war parliaments. Hitler is felt by multitudes of Germans as a *deliverer*. *All three dictatorships have given their country a sense of emancipation. They have ministered to the sentiment of freedom, and they have brought security. They have proved nothing against liberty, but only this paradox, that a conviction of liberty is more important than this liberty or that. Gratify the sense of relief, of enlargement, of opportunity, of new hope, and you may make free with freedom. Mankind weighs what it has and likes against the drawbacks thereof, and is easily disposed to contentment: in the endlessness of compromising it forgets to be pendantic. As for the dictatorships, they were born in a paroxysm of liberation, and they have been the instruments of liberation. It is not for them to decry freedom, but to see that they serve it, and in more ways and better ways. Dictatorships, after all, are judged by results. And results are judged largely by their bearing on freedom.*

Let me first consider the freedom of Universities in lands of normal freedom, where no paroxysm of liberation has endangered this liberty or that.

No society grants the citizen full freedom. There are the laws, the police, the rule of the road and innumerable other rules of convenience. There are, besides, the nicer shadings the things that aren't done; to do them is to lose caste. Here is the first special restriction on universities. Society in general and parents in particular expect professors to be persons of tone and manner. They would hesitate otherwise to entrust their sons and daughters to them. On the one

hand, parents are an exacting class ; on the other they are essential to universities : without them the dons would starve. The parents class professors with the pastoral callings—the preacher, the doctor, the family solicitor. But these favoured callings, with their monopoly of private information about homes and persons and their privileges as friends and advisers, are at a disadvantage in other respects. They are expected to avoid the more contentious and adventurous sides of life. Political bishops, agitator-doctors and propaganda-professors are not really liked, at least in England. The arena is not for these callings. They are the ornaments of the auditory. These rules of good breeding are a hardship, but there is nothing to be done. The principle of the division of labour and social sense appear to prescribe them.

It is not that parents are against professors having influence over students. On the contrary, they desire it. Professors, according to the parents, who are the paymasters, may have influence, and ought to have influence, provided they are not aware of it and don't intend it. Parents desire this influence to be stimulating and strengthening, but not disturbing or revolutionary. Professors must not be radicals of the Right or the Left, but especially not of the Left. They may influence, but not proselytise. So anxious are parents to guard against the exploitation of opinion in the young by propaganda ; and there is no easier prey than the young. Universities, of course, have broken up some happy homes. Good Conservatives have sent their sons to carefully chosen colleges, only to see them turn into Socialists. And good Socialists have seen their sons abjure the faith. Things happen, of course, in the best regulated colleges, and parents must take their chances. But they dislike things being made to happen.

In the past the professor was a type of sturdy independence in views and speech. The present age tends to turn him into a courtier and a diplomatist, for all over the world the universities are begging, borrowing, building, expanding. To the old academic instincts he adds the new sense of money. Need makes him careful, lest he should drive away donors. Carefulness, indeed, gains on the personnel of universities. The modern professor is an intense and acute type, increasingly specialist, bent on exactitude and detail, critical, sceptical, teasing out the truth in tiny packets. He has his characteristic aversions—to wide ideas, for they are often vague or empty, to rhetoric, to politics, to causes and

agitation. He is essentially a man of the Right. But observe the nemesis. His very mood provokes the contrary among the young. Observe the nemesis in the most professor-ridden of all countries. The German Youth Movement—idealist, iconoclastic, radicalising, rhetorical—has taken its professors in hand. It may fairly be said to have taken in hand the entire fortunes of Germany. From the risk of a crusade of youth no nation is ever exempt. A nation that needs the crusade is likely to have it. If there is no need, fashion and advertisement may still bring it. Whenever and wherever it appears, its watchword will be freedom—freedom from the works of the ideas of the old, or sheer freedom from the old. This, of course, is stupid, heartless tyranny. The paroxysms of liberation liberate plenty of paradoxes and wrongs.

I have tried to describe the atmosphere of university life and the influences and expectancies that play upon it from outside in a country, like England, of old and settled freedom. Good breeding keeps everyone right. The well-bred professor is discreet, and the well-bred donor considerate. The interest of the alumni is fitful and mild. The State pays large grants through the University Grants Committee, and the control exercised by the committee is a miracle of self-effacement. The control is thereby virtually surrendered in England and Wales to the local authorities which subsidise the universities and largely man their governing bodies.

Whether this surrender is good for universities and specifically for their freedom is a question. I shall try presently to answer it. It is enough to note how the good sense of an established and homogeneous society helps the universities to grow and keeps them free. The State refrains from bringing the universities into a centralised plan of control, as is done in France, and from grading them with the Civil Service, as do propaganda governments. Donors, alumni, the public, even the parents may fairly be said to refrain from meddling, open or covert. They are less accommodating, it is said in America. In the newer countries public opinion, when it happens to assert itself, is apt to be more dictatorial and private force more enterprising. But victimisation is curiously local. The professor evicted from one State, who needs but one refuge, has forty-seven States to choose from. The infinite variety of America makes her a paradise for her refugees.

I trust that as head of an English university institution I may be pardoned for regarding the English practice as a

standard of freedom. But this standard is not the only one, and the English practice is not a perfect example of freedom.

What is a university in essence ! For its purpose and its freedom hang together. What is the function of a university ?

I shall attempt an answer with an eye on origins and the past. The true root of universities is the passion for knowledge, for expression, controversy and teaching.

The early universities were the fruit of the twelfth-century renaissance and the taste of that time for setting up societies. They grew up under the meddlesome protection of the clergy and the patronage of Rome. In the first fine ages of exuberance and formativeness they ran rapidly through the entire gamut of motives, interests and tendencies that was inherent in them. They claimed a full measure of freedom. They governed themselves democratically by discussion and votes. They were jealous for learning, and being trade unions, they were jealous for their rights in it ; as Paris and Oxford showed in their long fights with the Dominicans and the Franciscans. They provided a pattern for municipal liberties and an example of democracy. Being organised on a fairly uniform system, using a common language, Latin, availing themselves of the single conciliative control of Rome, they were an international system. The habit of migration strengthened and stimulated them. They welcomed students of every age, condition and race. The University of Paris was not French, but European. It was a world institution, and it could make good its rights and its freedom against both Bishop and King.

Whatever we may think of the Middle Ages in general, their vision of universities is inspiring. The crusade of intelligence, at such times as its full light shone out, transcended nationality and private interest. It might then be said of them, 'The truth doth make them free.' Truth and freedom are one and the same thing for universities ; they are their element.

To-day in some countries the universities have to face the encroachments of nationalism. The matter is not quite simple or quite clear. But a certain tendency is fairly clear, and a threat exists. I shall leave aside the overt acts in which they have issued or may issue. Political authority has sought to censor opinion and teaching in the universities. It is difficult to believe that the universities needed a strait-waistcoat, or that the State needed this shield, that the one were so foolish or the other so weak. This new method—it is really very antiquated—defies the modern spirit. What

is the modern spirit but the tide of liberalism that, rising to the surface or flowing beneath it, steadily permeates the human race? History is full of relapses, but Time in the long run works for truth and for freedom. The present intolercancy may be incidental to a crisis of emancipation. Great actions often have unhappy accompaniments. The paroxysms of liberation may be attended by cramps, congestions, contortions, lesions. But these awkward and ugly phenomena of convulsive crisis at the very best are incidental to the action, and are not of its essence. It follows that they should be discarded at the earliest. If dictatorship, as I have suggested, can be a crisis of emancipation, if the freeing of men from some evil is usually the better part of what it does, if it ever invoked freedom, is committed to freedom. There it gives a handle. To cry out that the devil has escaped from hell, has seized the reins somewhere, and has murdered liberty, is not practical or true. Denunciation will effect nothing. The appeal to liberties vindicated in aid of liberties threatened or destroyed is more logical and more humane. Remonstrance needs common ground. Among university men and women all the world over there is distress and alarm at evidence and rumours of intolercancy. This international gathering may join with some hope in words of remonstrance, basing them on a common ground.

There never was a time when the world needed internationalism more. For there never were such nations. Organised, ambitious, over-conscious and nerve-ridden, they stand to their rights, armed or arming, closing their frontiers and their minds. The old internationals, the papacy, the Christian churches in general, the philosophies, are not the forces they were. The new international, the League of Nations, is all the force it can be, and how little that is! Premiers and Foreign Ministers meet in full conclave and agree, sometimes, upon a formula. It is often a formula of postponement.

It is a spectacle of despair. It is also an opportunity. It is a chance for the universities, as meeting-places for the gifted youth of all countries, as manufactories of world opinion, to supersede Geneva, or rather to prepare the way for it. The League is the instrument of world opinion—if only it existed. The universities can help to create it. The old habit of migration from university to university and from country to country requires to be reinstated with a new technique. The best internationalism is still the relationship of hosts and guests. This hospitality is an art: material

means and social method are needed for it. The universities, however, are not well equipped, as a rule, for this intercourse, or skilled in it. On the other side their teaching scarcely faces the problems of international politics. Their adventures in the social sciences appear to be limited to pedestrian inquiries into local details. Parochialism and specialism prevail. The Great Society, the world-life of mankind, lies outside the curriculum, and the universities have scarcely enough of conscious internationalism to observe the deficiency.

The true defence of universities against the encroachments of nationalism is a bold offensive. But are they in a fit state to undertake it?

Let us turn again to origins and the past. The last century has seen the rise of all the new universities of England and Wales, and their creation has been one of the great domestic feats of the race. They sprang from mixed motives of idealism and utility. They were to embody the love of thought and knowledge for themselves, to illustrate and enrich the spirit of man in its best aspirations. They were also to serve the needs of each locality and all its callings by teaching and training. In the rapid decades since 1828 Time has held the balance unfairly between humanism on the one hand and scientific specialism and technology on the other. The force of humanism itself may justly be said to be frittered away in quasi-scientific specialisms. The confiscatory sociology of the present times has laid a heavy hand on the universities as organs of use and advantage. The early universities examined and certified for one career only—that of the university teacher. The modern university is expected to teach and certify for any and every form of work. The old primacy of the Arts Faculty, the citadel of the university spirit and of humanism is gone. The spread of scientific specialisation and of the technologies has been too much for the old spiritual leadership. At the birth of the new universities there was, besides utility, a beatific vision to be realised. There was ; but it is utility that now bodies itself forth in a thousand forms and holds the eye and the will. A prodigious usefulness has submerged the universities.

To sum it up, an intangible essence is lost, or in danger of being lost, an essence of which the idealist is assured and the utilitarian doubtful or disdainful. A university is like a man: it may gain the whole world and lose its own soul. Some institutions can be completely soulless and completely serviceable, but not a university.

These tendencies and risks are not confined to England.

A university that loses its soul loses the best part of its claim to freedom. In this hard world men and institutions are seldom accorded more freedom than they need, and often less. The new specialists need less than the old humanists. Any dictator might see his chance in the present state of the universities. If the universities have lost their humanism, or the prophetic and magisterial tones in preaching it, need a dictator hesitate? From him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath.

The present intolerancy coincides with an inner confusion in the universities. I call it confusion rather than decline, for the remedy is plain, and it is in the hands of the universities themselves. Courage and skill and sustained effort will be wanted. Some penitence will be wanted too. And persecution may help."

Universities and Corporate Life

Sir Michael E. Sadler (Oxford)

"The attention paid to the activities of community life in Universities, Colleges and Schools is one of the major changes which have come about in education during the last hundred and fifty years. Its significance cannot be overlooked, even in comparison with that of other striking developments of modern educational practice.

The discussion of this subject, which affects the whole idea of education in almost all its branches, is appropriate in this section of the World Conference because the revived interest in the problems of corporate life began in Universities and was carried from the Universities into schools most closely associated with them and thence into a far wider field.

The encouragement given to the pleasures and duties of corporate life has heightened the zest of school and college days. It has swept away the sombre shadows which used to darken much of the educational landscape. It has abolished most of the old kinds of bullying. It is an essential part of the New Humanism. It has made more friendly and intimate the relations between teachers and the taught. It has shifted the focus of educational theory.

A movement, beginning in Universities, which has been so powerful in its influence and yet so spontaneous in its manifestations, must have sprung from some deep-seated needs in modern life. For this reason a study of it in its wider aspects may throw rays of light on the future.

Origins

A sense of the value of the discipline entailed by corporate life in Universities and schools is part of our living legacy from the Middle Ages. It is among the older things in European education. It persisted after the Renaissance and the Reformation among Catholics and many Protestants alike. The old tradition showed singular power of survival. Challenged by Rousseau and detested by some of the social reformers of the French Revolution, it was not eradicated but began to throw out new and vigorous shoots. And now, in new forms and under changed conditions, it is growing lustily, not only in its old habitats but in fields far distant from confessional allegiance.

But the pleasures and restrictions of corporate life are not to every one's liking. Many find it uncongenial and feel distaste for its restraints on personal independence, as well as for some of its collective activities. Among teachers, on whose devotion the development of some sides of corporate life has made exacting calls, there are not a few who would prefer to make other use of their free time and who find that its claims distract them from private study. Pastoral duties and preoccupations are not always compatible with the wide reading and undisturbed reflexion needed for the making of a learned man.

Nor is this all that can be urged against making corporate life a capital feature in educational practice. In Universities, some of its most intimate manifestations spring from the varied acquaintance naturally made in colleges where students live together for weeks at a time. But Universities which are based on the college system are few. In secondary education corporate life is naturally strongest in boarding schools, though these have drawbacks and difficulties from which another kind of educational atmosphere is free. Thus, though very successful efforts have been made to develop a fine spirit of corporate life in non-collegiate Universities and in schools where attendance is required only during the day, the administrative and social problem in such cases is different from that of the residential college or boarding school, both

as regards the time available and the size and cohesion of the groups which can serve as units of organisation.

Corporate life, again, can repress, and has sometimes been used to repress, certain manifestations of individuality. To those who most readily respond to its influence, it imparts a common tone and colour to feeling and opinion, if not (as is often desired) to religious or political belief. It may induce that kind of loyalty to an institution, or type of institution, which is too sectional, too limited in range and therefore a possible source of class prejudice and of unwillingness (or, at least, of unpreparedness) to take an active part in the rough and tumble of ordinary citizenship. But whether men like it or not, the wish to make the most of corporate life in education has come in like a strong tide, useful and enlivening, though also in some of its moods a menace.

The new movement began in two ancient collegiate Universities with a reawakening of educational responsibility. It was a reply to the new religion of secularism. But it drew its main strength not from any spirit of reaction but from self-sacrifice. It was both progressive and conservative. It sought to set its own house in order, partly by rethinking out the philosophical basis of education, partly by the strenuous fulfilment of the obligations implicit in corporate life. It found itself in conflict with some fundamental ideas of the French Revolution. In particular, it questioned the wisdom of abolishing ancient educational endowments which some of the French Revolutionaries resented as obstructive to rapid change and as derogatory to the sovereignty of the State. But what the pioneers of the new movement felt more deeply and disinterestedly than any threat to endowments was distrust of emotional rationalism as a substitute for the traditional discipline of the Christian faith. Thus, the revival of regard for the educational power of corporate life was in the first instance associated with the defence of Christian belief against formidable adversaries. One outcome of the struggle was an educational technique which, in the course of time and with many modifications, found acceptance in quarters far removed from its original associations. The groups of University men had realised that mediæval experience in education has significance for modern needs.

This revival of interest in corporate life as a factor in education had consequences in the economic sphere comparable to those in the theological. Here also the new-

movement had its radical and its conservative affiliations. The rapid growth of industry had brought wealth to new people. Prosperous industrialists were anxious that their sons should enjoy the best opportunities of education. The Universities had furnished some of the most famous schools with headmasters of outstanding ability, if not of genius, who had come under the influence of the new ideas during their student days. These men, who led the new educational movement in the schools, wished to impart to the younger generation of the influential industrial families a sense of responsibility for public welfare, and also to enrol them in the governing classes. The practice of corporate life in the great secondary schools, which drew inspiration from the Universities, had thus both an innovating and a consolidating tendency. It strengthened the new capitalist regime by giving to its scions the best education of the time. And it imparted a new tone to capitalism by teaching the responsibilities of wealth in social service.

Intellectually, the most important result of the new movement, both in Universities and in schools, was the foundation of student societies for discussion and for literature. Young men and youths did among themselves work which was original and spontaneous and none the worse for being criticised by their contemporaries. But, in addition to this, many undergraduates and schoolboys found stimulus through friendships with tutors and masters who no longer stood aloof from the life of their juniors. At schools, a few boys learnt a good deal of the art of government from having to carry a heavy, sometimes too heavy, weight of responsibility for school discipline. In the Universities the undergraduates found opportunities of leadership and directive organisation but in a much less formalised fashion.

More conspicuous, however, both in Universities and schools, was the growing importance of athletics and organised games in corporate life. Rowing and cricket rose rapidly in public consideration, and their popularity and prestige were an unforeseen result of the efforts of educational pioneers, many of whom had hardly played in a game since leaving school. Organised games were used as an instrument in corporate life. They taught hardiness and were a good substitute for misused leisure.

England, because it had the first experience of modern industry, became instinctively aware of vast impending changes in the order and habits of her social life. Many English people were also sensitive to the educational implications

of the revolution in industry. Looking back, therefore, we feel no surprise at finding the first traces of the new educational movement in England. The movement met a new social need which the English were the first to experience. And the new movement appealed to the English temperament in which conservative tenacity and a radical disposition, individualism and socialistic ideals, are blended in perplexing confusion.

Something impelled the English, about a hundred years ago, to look with increased favour on boarding schools and on the collegiate Universities. It is curious that when Prussia and Saxony made great reforms in higher secondary education they concentrated on the day schools and did not develop their famous and ancient boarding schools, but when, almost at the same time, Englishmen made a great effort to improve their higher secondary education they threw their minds into the reform and increase of boarding schools, leaving the day schools in neglect for many subsequent years. *Perhaps it was their experience of the economic changes which were caused by the rapid growth of mechanised industry that warned the English not to be too confident about the future of the traditional family life, for which boarding schools are in some measure a substitute.*

Certain colleges in the two ancient English Universities were the scene of the birth of the new movement for the revival of corporate life, though some members of both Universities may have been stimulated by hearing of conditions in Trinity College, Dublin. From the Universities the revival in corporate life passed by natural sequence into a few of the great boarding schools which recruited their headmasters from Oxford or Cambridge. After an interval, when parliamentary reform had quickened the local grammar schools, the new movement was carried by stages throughout secondary education, first for boys and afterwards for girls. In many primary schools, Anglican, Roman Catholic or Wesleyan, the tradition of corporate life had persisted in a slender, old-fashioned form, and our earliest training colleges for teachers set store by it. But public subsidies were too meagre, and from the 'sixties to the 'nineties the English official conception of elementary education was too narrow to allow the general diffusion of the new movement throughout our schools. When, however, the ban was lifted by a drastic change in the official Code of Regulations, the encouragement of the activities of corporate life spread through the whole system. About the same time, and also with some

official approval, the new movement showed itself in technical institutions. Simultaneously the Home Office ameliorated and humanised the conditions of corporate life in reformatory schools for young offenders.

Varieties

But I am far from meaning to confine this survey to our English experience, and will now attempt to describe the characteristics of corporate life in Universities in some other lands.

The last hundred years have seen an unparalleled growth in the number of Universities in nearly all parts of the world. National consciousness and a desire to meet new social and economic needs have been the mainsprings of this movement. A survey of the modern University movement as a whole suggests that the two strongest currents of world-influence in modern University organisation came from pre-war Germany, and from the United States. But, in the Near East, French influence has been very strong, and British influence has been predominant in modern India, Australia, New Zealand and (with much stimulus and generous help from the United States) in Canada.

But the Universities of each nation have a different aroma (or, in some cases, aromas) of corporate life. This also applies to some geographical areas which are culturally akin.

Many of us owe a debt of gratitude for what we learnt in old days from our attendance at German Universities. We remember the cordial friendships which they fostered between students and kindred tastes; the intimacy of the professors' seminars; and the high spirits of student festivals. To readers in the English-speaking world, the best interpreter of the intellectual and corporate life of the pre-war German Universities was Dr. Friedrich Paulsen. He helped us to realise that in an academic system which, like the German, allows a student to enrol himself at more than one University in succession in the course of his youthful studies, the conditions of corporate life must be less elaborately organised than when, as in England, an undergraduate resides at one University for the whole of three academic years. Among the rank and file of students, University life in Germany, as I knew it many years ago, was *an experience of freedom* rather than a social discipline. And it was at gatherings of academic fachmen, assembled from the higher educational institutions of Central Europe, that I have been most aware of that kind

of corporate sympathy which in England shows itself most readily at a College Gaudy or a University football match.

A French writer, Jules Romains, has brilliantly described in his novel "Men of Good Will" the high intellectual tension, which is characteristic of intimate life among the students in the most distinguished educational institutions in France. I suppose that nowhere in the world of young people are minds more alert, logical analysis more powerful, and the flame of reason brighter than among the élite of the students in Paris. And the story of the school friendship, which bound together Emile Zola and Paul Cézanne at Aix-en-Provence, shows that it is not in Paris alone that these conditions to some extent prevail.

In the United States there are at least two types of corporate life in Universities. The older, of which Harvard may be taken as an example, has its roots in the traditions of the old American Colleges. These were next of kin to the Nonconformist Academies in England in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Henry Adams, in his wise book on education*, said that, in his student days in the 'fifties of the last century, 'Harvard College, as far as it educated at all, was a mild and liberal school which sent young men into the world with all they needed to make respectable citizens, and something of what they wanted to make useful ones. Leaders of men it never tried to make. Its ideals were altogether different. The Unitarian clergy had given to the College a character of moderation, balance, judgment, restraint, what all the French call *mesure*; excellent traits which the College attained with singular success, so that its graduates could commonly be recognised by the stamp.' 'In effect,' he adds, 'the College created a type, but not a will.'

The other great type of American University, financed by its State, or flourishing as an endowed institution with its seat in a great city like New York or Chicago, has met a different need in American life. It has helped to consolidate social unity by widely opening the doors of University opportunity and training. For it, as for Universities of the older type, corporate life is an essential part of education. But in institutions which are largely non-collegiate corporate life takes forms which are less domestic.

In Britain among resident University students, there are three types of corporate life. These types vary with the

* The Education of Henry Adams: an autobiography, p. 54.

academic organisation of the three great groups of British Universities. (1) The Scottish Universities, which form one group, were for many generations far freer than the English from class distinctions. Their connexion with the town and village schools was closer. The students, in the aggregate, had narrower means. Corporate life in St. Andrews and Aberdeen was semi-collegiate; in Edinburgh and Glasgow, unitary. (2) In the second group, viz., the older of the modern English Universities, beginning with London and Manchester, were in their origins greatly influenced by Scottish experience and tradition. But their corporate life has become more of a blend of Scottish precedent with the collegiate ideals of Oxford and Cambridge. Within living memory they had hardly any Halls of Residence for students. Now they have many, both for men and for women. This is also the case in the constituent University Colleges of the University of Wales. And the University of Reading made a name for itself a generation ago, by being boldly modern in studies but traditional in its predilection for college life. (3) The third type of British University is represented by Oxford and Cambridge. They are honeycombs of corporate life. The Colleges are the cells of the honeycomb. These cells of honeycomb are set in a structure of University regulation, faculty, and discipline. Almost every Oxford or Cambridge man instinctively thinks of his College first when his thoughts go back to his University days. But the recent tendency is towards an equivalent allegiance to the individual College and to the University as a whole.

In the Middle Ages, wherein were the beginnings of our corporate life, the university was far more powerful than the colleges. About three hundred years ago the colleges gained control of the university. During the last half-century the balance of collective influence has been slowly redressed. There is now something which approaches equivalence. This change has been due to three main causes: (1) to the growth of scientific studies, the full development of which lies beyond the financial strength even of the wealthiest colleges; (2) to financial subsidies from the Government, because these are paid to the university and not to the colleges, and (3) to the need for unifying the influence of the university in its relations to the Government and the public, and for securing certain benefits and amenities indispensable to the welfare of the university and of the colleges alike. But, both at Oxford and

Cambridge, it is the colleges which focus our corporate life most vividly.

It remains true, as Benjamin Jowett said in Balliol College Chapel in 1870, that the members of a college 'desire to be a united society, amid many differences of temperament and character and opinions, animated by a common *esprit de corps*, and bound to one another by the interest of the work in which they are engaged.'

Results

Through this great change, which has gained momentum through the experience of a century, there has grown a sense stronger than we have had in England for many hundred years, of the fundamental one-ness of a country's education, and of the importance of reciprocal working among its constituent parts. The new movement has also widened our ideas of the scope of education. Any general survey of the work of universities and schools, and of the part they may play in national well-being and culture, unless it takes account, however sketchily, of other forces and conditions which necessarily affect the appropriateness of what bears the specific title of education, must be incomplete. Such is the imponderable influence of new currents of opinion and feeling—not, in our own case, British alone but continental also and American and overseas; such also is the standard of life accessible to the whole community, its health and its prospects of employment; such again are the repercussions of new inventions and discoveries upon the habits, mobility and occupations of the people; the recreations and leisure interests of adults; the amenities of towns and of the countryside; and the influence of the improved library services and of the news and ideas communicated by the newspapers and by the radio.

Into this wider conception of what education means a number of new adventures fall into place. In the Universities, drama, exploration, field archæology, scientific travel, music, painting, team journeys to the Continent and to America, many kinds of social service, scout-mastership, flying, and undergraduate societies in large variety. In the schools, music as a means of education, not for the individual only but as practised by the community, has rapidly won heightened recognition. Play-acting, which was a characteristic of mediæval education and has held a place in some schools from the Renaissance to the present time, is finding

new opportunities of proving its value as an instrument in education, not least when it is linked with rhythmic movement, music and appropriate and fastidious mounting. The Youth Movement of the Continent has some counterparts in Great Britain. And from the French, the Germans, and other nations we English may perhaps learn how better to use our mother tongue. There may be no reason in the nature of things why a nation which excels in making a good cup of tea should not also acquire the art of making a good cup of coffee.

Implications

It is not surprising that the increased importance attached in education to the unconscious influence of the community should have been contemporary with the growth in philosophy of the study of the Unconscious. But this current of thought, and its counterpart in modern educational practice, do not imply disparagement of the strict training of the mind and of the deliberate exercise of the reason. What the exponents of both aver is that in human experience and relationships the unconscious operates as well as conscious education; and that, just as there is need for gesture as well as for speech, there is a wordless wisdom as well as wisdom in words. The dispute between the new movement in education and what is most conventional in the old is concerned with the right balance of different activities in the course of the education of each individual. The new movement is not anti-intellectual, but doubts the validity of the view that the measurement of intellectual power and attainment solely by the customary technique of written examination is by itself a sufficiently exact criterion of the development of body and mind.

Body and mind—or soul and body to use the older term—are admittedly more closely connected than the practice of sectionalised education implies. To what extent they are interdependent is one of the problems of the future. But it seems a little unlikely that a physically A1 population would have no residue of C3 intelligence or of C3 capacity for independent thought. Yet indisputably there is leeway to make up, in the way of physical fitness, in this and other countries, and there are not a few here and elsewhere who sympathise with the trend of Herr Hitler's decision that students who have gone through the intellectual discipline of the higher secondary schools should round off their school education by a period of active work on the land.

Dangers

The proverb says that the corruption of the best is the worst. The activities of corporate life in Universities and schools need to be excellent in quality, and moderately used, or they may become a menace not only to high standards of learning, scholarship and mental exactitude, but also to society and to freedom. Some writers on education, being themselves intellectually gifted, are prone to generalise from their own experience and to make too favourable an estimate of the number of their fellow citizens who have the capacity to think out a difficult problem, or the disposition to stand alone by their conclusions. An unknown percentage of humanity quickly gets tired of thinking. They are baffled by the complexity of the greatest problems in life and are made uneasy by provisional or hesitating solutions. They are thrilled when they find themselves merged in a multitude, thinking the same thing and relieved from harassing doubts. *The encouragement of corporate life in Universities and schools* may become an instrument of policy. A few turns of the screw might turn a liking for comradeship into herd-thinking and flock-feeling. If it should be the fate of Europe to fall under the spell of drove-mentality, recalcitrant minorities might do worse than, like the ejected nonconformists after the passing of our Act of Uniformity, and like the Catholics under the Penal Laws, contrive to carry on in unfrequented places houses of education which would keep alive the traditions of their corporate life. But it is hard to believe that things will come to such a pass that large numbers of intelligent people will have to choose between being hermits or circus-horses ambling round the ring.

In the interests of internal peace it is desirable that within each grade of national education a Government should sanction the continuance or establishment of a variety of institutions representing different forms of conviction in regard to spiritual things. But in order to secure conformity with public requirements in regard to hygiene, and to maintain contact between the Government and every educational institution within its realm, there should be periodical and equitable inspection by public authority. It is to the interest of the whole community that all kinds of education which are tolerable should be tolerated: that variety of practice and experiment, which is the secret of progressive improvement, should be welcomed and watched ;

and that in the training of children and young people, the several groups within the State should have opportunity of practising what their different convictions prescribe. In these circumstances equity would suggest that, in sharing the common task of education, they should be entitled to some share in the funds to which as taxpayers they contribute. This, in outline, is the British system and it has contributed not a little to our internal peace.

But a concordat of this kind is possible only when a great and secure majority of citizens are in general agreement on the fundamental points of civil obligation. No State can afford to leave unscathed, still less to sanction or subsidise, institutions which seek to subvert its authority. The limits of educational toleration inevitably fluctuate with the rise and fall of the forces, economic and spiritual, which determine the essential civil security of the State. Those who threaten its authority must expect to suffer limitations on their freedom to educate the young, whether in University institutions or in schools.

Except in periods of cloudy transition from an existing to a new social order, educational institutions, which regard the full activities of corporate life as a cardinal part of their function, cannot avoid the task of determining the economic principles and the spiritual pre-suppositions which shall underlie the social and philosophical principles immanent in their discipline, outlook and way of life, though in the discharge of their task they may rightly claim discretionary power to appoint teachers and to admit students who cannot subscribe to those principles. This discretionary power is especially important in universities because they are not by any means exclusively places of education but are also centres of investigation and research, and because the cost of effective university organisation and equipment forbids the multiplication of universities beyond necessity. Moreover every effort should be made to secure accommodation of the claims of conflicting views in the administration of education. Between certain conflicting principles on fundamental questions—if these are pressed to an extreme—no final agreement is possible except agreement to differ. But the practice of toleration resting upon an accepted basis of civil obligation, discloses a very large extent of common ground and, without disloyalty to truth, can draw the sting from controversy.”

Culture and Technical Training

Raymond R. Butler (Principal, City of Liverpool Technical College)

"Life to-day is no longer a vast desert having here and there a kind of educational pyramid with a university at the apex. Broadcasting, the cinema and the internal combustion engine have made life itself the education system, a mountain range which all must climb. The university is a fraternity of the 'élite' marching by one route to the upper air. Yet the active world of to-day does not consist of the academically 'élite,' and may not even be governed by them. A great army of young citizens now find in the technical colleges training for degree and diploma qualifications for their careers a way to the mountain tops while yet the pilgrim climbs.

Science and Spiritual Values

Much of the ancient wisdom of bygone civilisations still remains vital; but this is a technical age and no artificial academic stimulants can to-day give life to ideas which are dead.

To understand the results of the impact of scientific invention on our own civilisation is of more cultural importance than classical studies of ancient history. The Great War was won in the laboratories and by the technicians. The Great Peace has been lost in the arid wilderness of academic discussion.

False Ideas of Freedom

In a scientific age the mere fact of having been born should not entitle any individual to the franchise unless his preparation for life has been such that he is able to fulfil a useful function in the life of the community.

In this country much might be achieved by a fuller application of the principles of the day continuation school system, by the commercial and practical training of the unemployed adolescent and by the full utilisation of the facilities offered in the technical colleges.

In place of much of the vague talk of citizenship and leadership it would be well if definite instruction were given in school, college and university on the necessity for personal, mental and physical discipline out of which alone citizenship and the capacity for leadership can develop."



MESSRS. F. S. FURBERT AND T. N. TATEN (BITUMUDA)

The Colgate Plan and the Sophomore Tutorial System

Professor G. H. Estabrooks (Colgate University)

"The most interesting characteristic of American education to-day is the inquiring attitude with which the problem is being approached in all its phases, be it at the elementary or the university level, in liberal technical or professional fields. One striking trend in our colleges has been a tendency in some quarters to draw inspiration from English sources, and it is this question which will be our centre of interest for the next few pages.

Now, it is very easy to over-estimate the importance of this influence. Higher education as a whole has not as yet been visibly affected by Oxford or Cambridge. Even those institutions, such as Harvard, Yale, Swarthmore or Colgate, who openly acknowledge their indebtedness to the English universities for certain phases of their curriculum, are still American institutions, and could never be mistaken for anything else.

Your institutions are largely intended to serve a high cultural group, but with us even Harvard and Yale cannot be as exclusive in their choice, while the great mass of American colleges must be very democratic in their admissions. In Great Britain from one to one and one-half per cent of the men around college age are in your universities; in the United States this figure approaches 10 per cent. We have over twelve hundred institutions of higher education registered at Washington, such states as Ohio, Pennsylvania and Texas having around eighty in each. This extremely democratic ideal, needless to say, reacts very definitely on the financial status of our students, as well as on their cultural and scholastic preparation, giving our average institution a student body of unlimited enthusiasm and idealism, but one which may be woefully unprepared along other lines.

While the peculiar nature of our student body in America will always offer a serious obstacle to our educational system, 'going English,' so to speak, the insurmountable barrier at the present moment is our inveterate tendency towards organisation. Perfection in the United States is equated with organisation to the nth degree. This tendency which makes itself evident in every phase of our national life has produced very interesting results in our institutions of higher education, of which the most significant for our present

discussion are, I think, two in number. First, our extremely well-organised and interlocked system of lectures, and, secondly, our course credit method and its resulting records. The tutorial and the final comprehensive examination have been introduced to combat certain evils arising largely from these two phases of higher education in America.

Indeed, we will risk the charge of over-simplification and ask you to concentrate your attention on these two aspects of our colleges, namely, our lecture and course credit system while regarding tutorials and comprehensive examinations as your own peculiar contribution borrowed to remedy defects in these particular fields. The probabilities are that although the standard of admission may rise in time we shall have more colleges rather than fewer, a larger proportion of men entering college, and that the State will assume more and more responsibility for free education up to the university level. In other words we are looking for no revolution in scholastic circles, and such experiments as those at Colgate are not intended to negate the American ideal. They aim rather at making this ideal more effective by free borrowing from other sources, when this seems advisable.

Specifically, what are the objections to our lecture and course credit system which we hope to remedy by tutorials and final comprehensive examinations? I cannot acquiesce in that wholesale condemnation of lecture courses which some people feel is legitimate. It seems to me that when lectures are properly prepared in specific fields and then organised with other lecture courses in the same department, school or whatever you may choose to call it, so as to avoid overlap and present a unified picture that then the lecture course with its associated reading may become a very effective means of instruction. This is especially so when we are thinking in terms of the American student body.

But this lecture system readily lends itself to a grave abuse when taken in conjunction with our course credit method of accounting. A three-hour course, shall we say, is one in which the student attends lectures three hours a week. At the end of the term he passes an examination on the contents of this course with such reading as may have been prescribed, and if successful receives three hours' credit duly entered in the registrar's books. He may now forget entirely about the material mastered, for he has his pay-check, so to speak, and an accumulation of these totalling one hundred and twenty hours entitles him to one Bachelor of Arts degree. If he is two hours short, then this work must be completed

in summer school. On the other hand, if he comes up to his last term well ahead of the game in hour credits, then this last term may become a glorious lark, with nothing to do. Indeed, in some institutions it was the practice to excuse most seniors from examination at the end of their last term, thus making the whole ending more or less of a farce.

The lecture course does not cause this *morcellement* of the curriculum, but it does lend itself admirably to the system. Graduation becomes a function of the administrative adding machine. So many hours equals one degree, no matter how disconnected or in what subjects. Of course we exaggerate, but in many cases this picture is still surprisingly correct.

Obviously this is an example of organisation carried to an absurd length. The student's intellectual life is sacrificed to the working of a well-oiled machine, because the system does work beautifully. Everyone knows exactly where he is at every stage of the game. One knows just what is lacking, where it is lacking and how it can be remedied, which is excellent in some fields, but may have its flaws in educating college students.

Our lecture and course credit system manœuvred higher education into a position where it had two urgent needs. First, a process of unification and integration whereby the student is required to direct his energies toward the accomplishment of some one intellectual task, the mastering of some one field of knowledge. Secondly, some method of recognising and allowing for the individuality of the particular student, which is difficult under the lecture course system.

We have attempted to overcome these defects in the following manner at our own institution, which is a non-sectarian four-year liberal arts college limited in attendance to one thousand men whose average ages are between eighteen and twenty-two.

Our president's first move was to divide the institution into six broad schools, each of which prescribes certain boundaries within which this process of concentration must take place. These are the schools of physical science, biological science, social science, philosophy and religion, fine arts, and lastly, language and literature. Each of these contains those departments which would seem to belong under the respective heading and each school will have its head, who will be responsible for scholastic and administrative matters within that school.

We then worked out broad survey courses to serve as bases for five of these schools, the school of language and literature

being exempt for certain reasons which need not detain us here. These survey courses are designed literally to survey the various fields of knowledge in the particular school. They are, of necessity, broad rather than deep, aimed to stress points of view rather than content. You might perhaps say that they are superficial, and from the older viewpoint you might be justified. If so, then we have sinned intentionally and have not as yet repented.

The object of these survey courses is to supply at least the rudiments of that broad cultural background which may be lacking in many of our student body, and also to give guidance on which the student may make an intelligent choice of his school of concentration. These courses are required of all students, four being given in the freshman year and the fifth, fine arts, in the sophomore or second year.

Our tutorials also begin in the freshman year. I find it very difficult to get a clear definition of the tutorial relationship, and so am using the term in a very broad sense to cover work involving individual attention and guidance. You will see that we have three types of such tutorial relationship. Every freshman, for example, has a preceptor assigned him with whom he meets individually for one hour a week. This is quite aside from any course work which he may be doing. We define the preceptor's duties as those of broadening the student's intellectual horizon, insist that his duties are entirely of an intellectual nature unless the student may choose to raise moral issues, and allow him the greatest freedom in working out this relationship. No line of study is prescribed, no definite amount of work required. The relationship is purely individual and varies as to the student and preceptor in question. We only ask a conscientious piece of work on the part of the latter.

We hope to obtain certain results from this contact. First, it is hoped that the cultural background of the student may be very definitely enriched by such readings as the preceptor may prescribe and by other phases of the relationship. Then the student is given a close contact during the year with one faculty member who can advise along the lines of a moral tutor, should this be necessary. Finally, we hope that the preceptor may be able to discover some really gripping interest of the student and may so help him towards his concentration.

This preceptorial work is done in addition to the regular course work in the freshman year. We should add that the preceptors are assigned at random and have no relation to

any interests which the student may have on entering. This may appear a weak point in the system, but we do it deliberately so as to prevent a too early specialisation on the student's part.

In the second year we carry this tutorial work a step further, in what we call our sophomore tutorials. Here again the student is met individually for one hour a week, but the picture is not quite the same. At the end of his freshman year we hope that, with the aid of guidance given in the survey courses and by his preceptor, he will have been able to choose his school and probably his department of concentration. He can almost always make a tentative choice. The sophomore tutor is chosen from this department of concentration and his duty is that of guiding the sophomore in the field of his choice, say history, pointing out the inter-relations between history and other fields of study in the school of social sciences, stimulating any special interests which the student may have in this field, and finally to beginning preparation for the final comprehensive examination at the end of the fourth year.

You will note that this type of tutorial work bears a certain resemblance to that at Oxford and a very close likeness to that at Harvard. As in the case of Harvard, we give no actual credit for this work in the sophomore year. We also retain the lecture system, insisting that this is far too valuable a teaching device to be discarded, if possible abuses can be foreseen. This personal guidance is an effort to do away with the standardising effect of the lectures, and we hope that our early stress on the comprehensive examinations will bring the idea of unity and integration to the student's mind.

Finally, we have what we term our 'upper class tutorials.' These are confined to the third and fourth year of college work. Here the students meet in small groups of from three to six for one period of about two and a half hours per week. The student is required to take one seminar per term in his department of concentration, in addition to which he has a certain number of courses which may or may not fall in this field. A student will thus have four such seminars during his last two years; that is to say, one a term. These are arranged so as to cover in a broad way the entire field of, say, history. The student is expected to prepare essays and make reports on required readings much the same as is the case in the Oxford tutorial, the great object being preparation for the final comprehensive examination. We feel that with these groups we can obtain most of the benefits arising from

your tutorial system, and yet maintain an efficient picture of organisation which takes care of any weak links in the chain. We have to be on constant guard that the small groups do not develop into small classes with the usual lecture technique.

You will recognise this seminar system as having a certain resemblance to that at Swarthmore. There are, however, certain differences. We do not confine these tutorial seminars to honour students. Indeed, we do not use the idea of a separate honours school, feeling that this device is not suited to the American picture as it now exists. We also maintain and stress our lecture system. Thus a student majoring in, say, history, will have a normal load of fifteen hours per week. You may regard it as odd that we still talk in terms of course hours after our attitude on this subject, but if we did not use this device all America would be out of step except Colgate. We do have to work with other institutions, and the final comprehensive examination does away with most evils of this system.

The student will, then, have an average load of fifteen course hours per week. His seminar will be counted as six hours and he will be required to take three more courses. He will take these under the advice of his tutor. One at least, and probably more, will be in his school if not in his actual department of concentration. We should point out also that attendance at lectures is required except in the case of a very few men of highest standing. You will note that in this upper class tutorial work we have striven for a synthesis, borrowing your idea of individual guidance while striving to retain the best in our own lecture system.

This whole educational process naturally culminates in the final comprehensive examination coming at the end of the senior year. This aims to cover the department of concentration much the same as does that at Oxford. We are discussing the advisability of making this more of a school than a department affair, but are more or less undecided as to just what its future will be. Graduation is dependent upon successfully passing this final examination which, I may add, is as yet employed in only a small minority of American colleges. Course credits are quite sufficient in most institutions.

I would like to point out in closing that we consider the final comprehensive examination an integral part of the tutorial system. As ex-President Lowell of Harvard said, 'a system of tutorials without a final comprehensive examination is like a race without a goal.' It seems to us at

Colgate that the incorporation of this examination along with a tutorial system is the most satisfactory way in which to remedy that lack of goal and over-standardisation which are defects in the higher education of present-day America."

The Problem of the Humanities in Colleges and Universities as a Result of Recent Trends in High School Curricula

Professor John D. Fitz-Gerald (University of Arizona)

"About 30 to 35 years ago the High Schools of the United States began to realise, quite properly, that with the largely increased attendance of students, their problem was no longer limited to the preparation of college students. Naturally they began to offer a more widely diversified programme of studies and introduced the elective system. They then began asking the colleges to accept, in lieu of and on an equal footing with the regular required subjects, all the subjects they were teaching. The result has been that the student who has planned to go to college and to the university frequently brought to the college the same kind of training as that possessed by the student who was not going to pass beyond the high school. Consequently the preliminary background of cultural subjects—languages, literature, history, mathematics and English—was no longer present as hitherto in the equipment of the student who came to college. As a result our historians, our philosophers, and those who deal with languages and literature, find themselves handicapped by the lack of a mastery of English and by the lack of literary equipment and of any tool equipment for the handling of foreign languages, so that they might read concerning any given literature what has been written by scholars in other languages than their own.

From the position of begging that the colleges accept all the subjects the High Schools are teaching, they have now reached the point where they demand the progressive invasion of extraneous subjects into the college preparatory acceptances; this has led to a difficult state of affairs. That I am not over-drawing the attitude of our educators to-day

may be shown by the following quotation from an article that appeared in the *Arizona Teacher* of September, 1934 :—

‘ The future of our present courses in mathematics and foreign languages is problematical. It is possible that we may come to a one or two-year general mathematics course in which will be combined the usable skills of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Such evidence as we now have indicates that this would be sufficient for the majority of our pupils. Foreign language is now quite generally a two-year course in our secondary schools. Some educators are inclined to question the cultural value of the subject as taught at present, but it is probable that with a decided broadening of its aims in the direction of a general cultural course it will be retained in the new curriculum. It will, however, be moved from the ninth and tenth grades to the eleventh and twelfth grades. The colleges will look with considerable concern on any changes in either of these fields, but *a general refusal of our high schools to accept college dictation* [the italics are mine] can only result in the liberalisation of college entrance requirements. It must be remembered that a majority of our graduates do not go to college.’

I am pleading for the needs of the student who is not going to quit his studies at eighteen, nor perhaps even at twenty-two, but will carry them on in many cases to the Doctorate at twenty-five. His needs call for a more nicely co-ordinated programme of studies, with, in the first place, those subjects which are habit forming given to him in his adolescent years, serving as tools and background for his later humanistic studies.”

“ Where at each coign of every antique street,
A memory hath taken root in stone,
There, Raleigh shone ; there, toiled Franciscan feet ;
There, Johnson flinched not, but endured, alone.

There, Shelley dreamed his white Platonic dreams,
There, classic Landor throve on Roman thought,
There, Addison pursued his quiet themes,
There, smiled Erasmus, and there, Colet taught.”

—LIONEL JOHNSON.

From “ Oxford and Poetry,” by R. Kennard Davis, M.A.

COMMITTEE ON COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

Chairman : FRANCES MOON BUTTS, Washington D.C.

[In the absence of Dr. Butts, Mr. T. Dawc presided.]

Secretary : L. MACSWEENEY (President, I.N.T.O.)

Place of Meeting : The Wesley Memorial Church Hall.

FIRST SESSION : TUESDAY, 13th AUGUST, 10 A.M.—12.30 P.M.
General Theme : "FORUM PLAN."

THE BROADENING SOCIAL EMPHASIS IN MODERN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

Introductory : F. Mander (President, W.F.E.A.)

Miss Selma H. Borchardt (Washington,
U.S.A.)

An important philosophy dealing with the relationship which must exist between education for commerce and business, and general education was expressed by Mr. F. Mander in his welcome address at the first session of the Commercial Education Section, held on Tuesday morning. "I think our attitude towards commercial education, like our attitude towards any other phase of education, must depend upon what we understand by business and commerce," he said. "Education must take a broad view of business which aims at meeting the economic needs of mankind, but economic needs are not the only needs, for there are political and spiritual needs as well. I regard it as the function of education to meet all these needs as fully as possible, consequently education for business and commerce must not be a separate entity but an equal constituent part of the whole function of education. I know that my colleagues who belong to the faculty of commercial teaching have striven for years to remove the narrow view of commercial education. They have taken steps to remove the

impression that it is merely a training in shorthand, type-writing, and book-keeping—and in their efforts I wish them every success.”

Miss Selma Borchardt said that in the U.S.A. they had set their hearts on achieving the objects Mr. Mander had put forward. “The N.R.A.”, she said, “was really an effort to clean up business and, although the supreme court has declared that attempt illegal, we shall go on and achieve the same results through other methods. At least the N.R.A. has made one supreme gift to the conduct of commercial life in the U.S.A., and that is the elimination of child labour from the labour market.”

The Modern Philosophy of Business

Beresford Ingram (Divisional Inspector, London County Council)

[In the absence of Mr. Ingram, the following paper was read by Mr. T. Dawe.]

“I have taken the precaution to place my views on this subject before many business men; the more candid and generous of them listened with ranging degrees of attention, and, at the conclusion, said, ‘Theory—all theory, my boy!’ The less courteous (but equally candid) have used such phrases as: ‘Sheer madness,’ ‘bankruptcy,’ ‘impossible,’ ‘Sunday talk,’ and every other expression which occurs to men who have as their supreme ideals—‘Get rich quick’ and ‘Do your competitor or he’ll do you.’

Still, even the man in the street sighs for first causes; and even he must, at times, ponder over a very obvious fact in this country, viz: that Great Britain appears to be emerging successfully from the war of plunder which disturbed the world in 1914–18—and furthermore he is wondering whether philosophy is wrong or business is wrong in that the plundering of the dead has gone on ever since the war ceased. He inclines to the view that it is the business of the world which is at fault.

The present ‘business of the world’ is the business of armaments. To discover the philosophy of their business is a task of some magnitude to the analyst. I have succeeded

when I thought failure was certain and inevitable. I have discovered that there is no honour, no glory, no satisfaction, no progress, no national profit, no battle pride and no recognition of God Himself in war: the sole and only object of initiating war is plunder.

To recognise this is, in our time, the outstanding manifestation of the philosophy of business.

Is there anybody who will deny that the "business" of the world has been the central and controlling factor in all social development during the last twenty-one years?

And is there anybody who can accept, with any calm hope for the future, the present chaotic conditions under which 'business' is attempted and conducted as between nations?

That Europe (especially) should put its house in order before the rapid development of means of transport and communication reach their zenith and render our present laws, codes and regulations obsolete, farcical and foolish must be noon-day clear to any honest man . . . a philosophy of business which has the consent of all such men and is founded on the strong belief in the ultimate goodness of man is, after all, something less than a miracle.

My address *may* arouse a little comment, but I fear it will accomplish nothing; for it aspires to an idealism against which so many business organisations have fought so successfully for very many years. What was at first an expedient in the development of these organisations quickly ran through the next stage of 'habit,' and finally developed and settled down into a 'nature.'

So I shall endeavour to set forth (in terms of my definition) what the modern philosophy of business is (and should be) in its relation to social adjustment.

First Principle

I am led to enunciate this principle by an experience which I had when I took my family on its first holiday to the continent in 1924. I furnished myself with sufficient Bank of England notes (so I thought) to complete the stay; but towards the end of the holiday it was obvious that I must have more money. I went to a local bank, and presenting a cheque on one of the 'Big Four' in England, I asked how long it would take them to confirm my account and hand me the money.

To my astonishment, the manager offered to cash the cheque immediately. I pointed out that he neither knew me nor where I was staying at the time. 'That does not

matter,' said he. ' You're an Englishman, and that is quite sufficient.'

(We have been eight or nine times to that particular country since, and I have never taken money with me—only my cheque-book.)

Again, I was told recently by one who has travelled extensively (and for many years) in Russia and knows the language intimately that when commercial bargains and contracts are struck in that country the concluding words are invariably, ' on the word of an Englishman.'

Now these stories are not told in order to aggrandise the reputation of my country : they merely illustrate a principle of business. Herein must be both philosophy *and* business, because I am unwilling to believe that any business man (except the failures) would accept and act on such a principle unless it were nearly a 100 per cent. safe so to do.

Maybe ! I have said enough to establish the first principle of business, namely, common honesty.

Second Principle

The second principle is better understood in its history and success (or otherwise) on the other side of the world than in Europe ; but it would appear that we are rapidly overtaking the lead which America has given to the world. I am referring to the formation of the great combines and stores.

I do not require to be told of all the benefits of such concerns and to what extent they have raised the standard of living and comfort in every community in which they have been introduced and established and have thrived ; but I am old enough to have seen their effect on, and to have heard the lamentations of, the smaller dealers and tradesmen whom they have displaced, and to have marked the gradual extinction of the latter. I have seen the passing away of that intimate and dearly prized interest between the seller and the buyer which was such a marked feature of business life fifty years and more ago.

This divorcement of the daily task from the daily thoughts and social duties is an innovation of the last two generations—I cannot say with conviction that it has improved either the master or the man : both have become negligent of each other under its self-seeking influence, and neither work nor leisure have become more attractive as a result of the separation of employer and employee.

So, without citing more examples, the second principle of business can be put forward in the simple English form of 'Live and let live.'

Third Principle

In my endeavour to extract the second principle from the indescribable medley of needs which civilisation has humbugged us into believing to be necessities, I pointed out that the standard of living had possibly been raised by such agencies. It would be easy, therefore, to misapply the dictum of old Jeremy Bentham and to exclaim unctuously that here indeed was a case of 'the greatest good for the greatest number.'

Nothing can be more misleading (either in philosophy or in business especially) than the omission of the 'time factor,' and therefore the 'greatest good for the greatest number' at any one time might conceivably be the *worst* that could happen for the greatest number in a few months or a few years' later time.

As long, however, as you endeavour to ensure that the greatest good is offered to the greatest number having due regard to the near and distant future (and none for yourself) the business man as well as the philosopher will be making a contribution to the social development of the community.

I am fully aware of the difficulty of defining what is the 'greatest good'; that it is not numerical as is the latter part of the principle is obvious, but as a guide to the definition of 'good,' one might realise that it means 'the absence of self.'

Fourth Principle

The next principle appears to me to be one which has been discovered and practised only by those business organisations which have rejected the 'get-rich-quick' policy and have built up a sound form of profitable trading which was intended to meet not merely present-day requirements, but *envisaged continuity and expansion*. Of course, these firms have had their vicissitudes, but it remains an irreputable fact that, practising this principle, I cannot recall a single instance in which such firms do not stand in the eyes of the business world as those for which the public obtains adequate value for large or small investments and purchases. In all firms of this type there are provided facilities which enable the employees, as they grow older and get more experience,

cither to improve their careers in the firm or to increase their interest in intellectual or social activities. This is effected by systems of education and instruction, and it involves sacrifices on both sides. It costs both employer and employee hard cash, and in most cases it entails sacrifices of work and leisure hours.

It would appear, therefore, that the modern philosophy of business includes (or should include) a certain measure of sacrifice.

Fifth Principle

With considerable diffidence do I venture to advocate the next principle. We have to face the fact, in this country at least, that the greater proportion of our workers leave all educational direction and supervision at the age of fourteen years.

Speaking, therefore, as a schoolmaster of much experience, I must admit that, at this early age, it is wellnigh impossible to have completed the training of boys and girls in such a way and to that extent which endows them with a standard of loyalty which will enable them to adjust themselves for the rest of their lives to the conditions which modern methods of industry, and modern organisation of controlling such, have imposed upon us.

Now, I don't want to be either misquoted or misreported on that assertion. I have been too long an inspector of schools not to have seen and noted with admiration the efforts of our head teachers to give the greatest attention to the inculcation of 'loyalty'; but, in the welter of examination requirements and the fight to prevent 'instruction' in schools superseding education, their efforts are curtailed by the factor of time. Boys and girls who stay at school until the age of sixteen, seventeen and even later may have ample opportunities to act in positions of minor responsibility and in a variety of ways to practise it. *Then* they learn for themselves the bed-rock necessity for the *practice* of many forms of loyalty; moreover, they acquire this experience at just that age at which it makes an enduring impression.

But at the age of fourteen—the age of maximum expression—and in classes of forty children (or more), how is it possible to establish the principle and value of 'loyalty' in them beyond the point of precept? Yet—every employer expects this quality and looks for it in full measure and brimming over.

Sixth Principle

I was at one time tempted to omit this, the last principle, from my paper, chiefly owing to the fact that so many of the people whom I consulted grew suspicious the moment I used the word 'service.' But I was encouraged to persevere with the idea by reason of a long contact which I have been fortunate enough to sustain with the Rotarian Movement in London.

In the pamphlet which the Rotary International Associations publish on 'Vocational Service' there occurs so much that supports the main principles of my advocacy this morning that I am taking the liberty of quoting from that document :

'The ideal of service is the basis of all worthy enterprise.

'The recognition of the worthiness of all useful occupations and the dignifying by each business man (i.e. Rotarian) of his occupation as an opportunity to serve Society.

'Vocational service is that which transforms a way of getting a living into a way of living a life.'

Later on in this pamphlet, I noted, with intense satisfaction, that Rotary regards the welfare of the youth of the community as distinctly a department of service in which Rotarians could take a part.

As these opinions come from business men themselves, I feel that I am not (this time) called upon to apologise again for my idealism.

Now, when I recapitulate the qualities of :

Common honesty,
Live and let live,
The greatest good for the greatest number,
Sacrifice,
Loyalty,
Service,

I become conscious of many omissions, and I feel that my philosophy is somewhat incomplete ; it lacks the attractive touch of the expert ; it is almost devoid of quotations from great men or excerpts from great books—its only merits are that it is simple and impartial ; but to the man in the street its simplicity must have some measure of attraction and even the man in the business world will hesitate to challenge its practicability."

Commercial Education in Saorstát Éireann

G. J. T. Glampett (Principal, Technical Institute,
Rathmines, Dublin)

“ Commercial Education in Saorstát Éireann is provided under the authority of

- (1) The Vocational Education Committees ;
- (2) The Secondary Schools ;
- (3) The Universities ;
- (4) Private Enterprise.

The Vocational Education Committees (4 county boroughs, 7 urban districts, 27 counties), are statutory bodies receiving their authority under the Vocational Education Act of 1930. Each Committee consists of fourteen members appointed by the Local Authority. The funds of the Committee come mainly from two sources, (1) the Local Authority, (2) Central Government.

The cities and urban districts have power to raise a rate on a graduated scale of from 3d. to 6d. in the pound, and the counties of from 1½d. to 4d. in the pound. In the year 1st April, 1934, to 31st March, 1935, the total contribution from local rates was over £132,000 and from Central Government nearly £205,000.

The function of the Committees is to provide suitable Continuation and Technical Education. The Committees are, of course, subject to the general control of the Minister for Education.

Under the authority of the Vocational Committees Full-time Day Schools and Part-time Courses and Classes (day and evening) are in operation.

The full-time day schools are available to all young people who, in general, are not less than fourteen years of age.

Continuation education has evolved into four main types : (1) Technical ; (2) Commercial ; (3) Rural ; (4) Domestic. The detailed programme of study for any one of these types varies according to local conditions, but in all handwork and practical subjects claim not less than twelve hours out of a twenty-five hour week, thus emphasising the vocational bias of the continuation education.

The Technical education in the full-time day schools is definitely vocational. In the cities, particularly, the aim is

to cater, by specialisation, for the various trades and commercial pursuits. The part-time classes are almost entirely concerned with technical education and are organised to meet the special needs of the locality in which they operate, and especially in the cities there is a large choice of courses and classes extending from the lowest to the highest standards, and covering a wide and comprehensive field in Engineering, Chemistry, Science, Building, Commerce, Art, Domestic Economy, and Rural activities. In the session 1933-34, 10,228 students attended full-time day schools and 52,003 part-time classes—a total of 62,231. The aggregate number of attendance hours of these studies was 7,452,155, an average of 120 hours per student. The total number of teachers employed was 1,293, and the total hours of instruction were 623,649. The total receipts from all sources at the disposal of the Committees was as follows :—

Grants from Department of Education	..	£204,710
Local Contributions	132,168
Tuition Fees	15,490
Sale of books	2,285
Other sources	4,026
Total		£358,679

As this paper is concerned only with Commercial education a brief description of this aspect of the work of the Vocational Committees is necessary.

The Day Schools of Commerce are usually full-time. Some are organised so that students attend from 9.30 a.m. to 12.30 p.m. and 2.30 to 4.30 p.m. each day. Others, especially in country towns where students may have some distance to travel, meet from 9.30 a.m. to 2.30 or 3.0 p.m. with an interval for a mid-day meal. Where the enrolment is sufficient boys and girls meet in separate classrooms, thus allowing special time tables to be drawn up to meet the particular needs of boys and of girls. But in the social life of the schools and in the various activities of the students' unions it is usual for the boys and girls to work together in friendly co-operation and rivalry.

These Day Schools provide specialised commercial courses and continuation education with a commercial bias. The latter is intended for students who are not considered sufficiently advanced for the specialised training. In the cities, where the numbers are comparatively large, it is possible to sectionalise the commercial work so as to provide

self-contained courses for the retail distributive trades and the minor and general clerical occupations. Where this division is not possible or advisable a general course in commercial subjects is followed by all students.

In most centres there is close co-operation between the school and the business community. The courses in Retail Distribution are drafted in consultation with representatives of the retail trades, and in many cases students who have followed an approved school course are guaranteed apprenticeships or employment. Also, in the cities there is no difficulty in placing competent students who have passed through the course for general clerks and shorthand typists. In the City of Dublin the supply of qualified students lags behind the demand.

The Day Schools in the cities also provide senior courses for youths and girls normally of not less than seventeen years of age, of good general education, and who wish to prepare for a commercial career or for the examinations of the Civil or Municipal Services, Banks, Insurance, or one of the preliminary examinations.

It is of importance to note that though the Day Schools of Commerce are vocational they have as a fundamental conception the formation of good character and personality, the development of culture, and a high sense of civic and national duty. In furtherance of this ideal the curricula include not only vocational subjects, but also some or all of the following :—Languages, Literature, History, Art, Woodwork (boys), Domestic Economy (girls), Physical Training and Organised Games, Civics, and Religious Instruction. Much importance is attached to a corporate and social school life, and to this end the students are encouraged, advised, and helped in every way possible.

Instruction in Irish

It is the policy of the Department of Education that all instruction should eventually be given through the medium of the Irish language. The implementation of this policy implies three things : (1) that the students entering the Vocational Schools have a competent knowledge of Irish ; (2) that teachers are qualified to give instruction through Irish ; (3) that Irish is the language of the home, the office, and the workshop. Many of the Primary Schools now use Irish entirely as the teaching medium, and all others devote ample time to the subject to ensure a competent knowledge

at the leaving age of fourteen years. The means taken to ensure that teachers are fully competent in Irish are comprehensive and very complete, and all teachers now appointed must be qualified to teach through Irish.

At the moment in the Vocational Schools it is the rule rather than the exception for Irish to be the language of instruction in the Gaeltacht Counties (Irish-speaking counties). In addition, at least fifteen counties teach commercial subjects through Irish.

Is it anticipated, therefore, that in time, especially when Irish is the language of the home as well as of the school, the policy of the Department of Education in regard to the Irish language will be possible to the fullest degree.

Staffing

The Day Schools of Commerce are staffed mainly by University graduates who hold the B.Comm. degree and a qualification in Irish, and in very many cases an Arts degree and the Higher Diploma in Education. The ideal teacher would be the University graduate who had had some practical business training and experience, and there are many who urge that this view should receive serious consideration in connection with future appointments. Some few teachers have as their main qualification some years of good practical business experience, and in the teaching of vocational subjects they have proved most helpful and competent.

Examinations and Certificates

The utility of examinations has always been and will always be a controversial topic with educationists. Little more can be said than that they have their uses and their misuses. Everything depends upon the object of the examination and its reactions on the day to day educational routine of the school. In connection with the Day Schools of Commerce in Saorstát Éireann there is no central examination system. Each Vocational Committee is a law unto itself—it makes its own arrangements, and if considered desirable, issues its own certificates. The problem is one that is sure to receive early consideration, and there are many who hope that whatever policy may be adopted, a rigid centralised scheme will be avoided like a plague and that decentralisation and local control subject to general uniformity will be an accepted fundamental.

Part-time Courses and Classes

The part-time education under the control of the Vocational Education Committees is mainly vocational in type and is almost entirely availed of by students who are at work in the day time, and who endeavour by attendance at evening classes to obtain some recognised qualification, or generally to improve their vocational knowledge and efficiency.

The courses and classes in Commercial subjects are provided for in the Commercial Departments of the Technical Institutes or, as in Dublin and Cork, in separate Schools of Commerce.

The extent of the work in any area depends, of course, on the demand in that area. In the towns, where minute specialisation is not required, very complete courses are provided to cover the needs of the minor and general clerical occupations. In the cities, particularly in Dublin, a high degree of specialisation is possible, so that, in addition to similar courses as the towns, specialised courses have been established to meet the needs of young men and women engaged in the distributive trades and the Civil and Municipal services, also for those who seek a recognised diploma or other qualification pertaining to a commercial profession.

For example, the Accountancy courses fully cover the existing requirements of the intermediate and final examinations of the Professional Accountancy bodies which, as those interested know, are post-graduate in standard and include the subjects of Auditing, Law, Actuarial Science, Statistical Method, Economics, and the many sub-divisions of Book-keeping and Accountancy. In like manner the examination demands of the various Secretarial, Advertising, Banking, Insurance, and Transport professional bodies are met.

There is a genuine effort to make evening commercial work as practical and useful as possible. The needs of the students are studied, and in many instances, through the medium of consultative committees, there is close and helpful co-operation between the school and the business community.

The problem of staffing is considered as of first importance. Specialists are engaged wherever possible for the advanced and specialised subjects. Thus a bank official of some standing and good qualifications is in charge of the classes in Banking. Similarly for Advertising, Accountancy, Insurance, Transport, Retail Distribution, and Secretarial work. This practice is, of course, common to all Higher Commercial

Education, and has proved to be the only really satisfactory policy.

The question of examinations and certificates in connection with the work of the evening classes is entirely different from that of the full-time Day Schools. Evening students have the right to demand the opportunity of acquiring some definite and recognised acknowledgment of their work and capability. Those seeking a professional qualification will, of course, sit for the examinations of the professional organisation in which they are interested—be it Accountancy, Banking, Advertising, Insurance, Secretarial or Transport.

The Department of Education now provides a system of examinations to meet the needs of those engaged in General Clerical Occupations and Retail Distributive Occupations, also in Languages. In general, there are three stages in each subject—elementary, intermediate and advanced. Candidates may present themselves for examination in one subject only, and may sit for the intermediate or advanced stage without having taken any preceding examination in that subject.

The scheme is devised to suit the needs of young people engaged in commercial occupations, and to provide them with opportunities of securing qualifications in subjects which are definitely associated with the occupations in which they are engaged.

The Secondary Schools and Commercial Education

Under the authority of the Department of Education two Certificates are available to students of Secondary Schools :—

- (1) The Intermediate Certificate, intended for students of about sixteen years of age.
- (2) The Leaving Certificate, intended for students of about eighteen years of age.

In the courses of study provided for both of these Certificates Commerce may be substituted for Science, Latin or Greek.

The Commerce of the Intermediate Certificate course includes Book-keeping, Industrial History, Précis, Business Methods or Shorthand, and for the Leaving Certificate Book-keeping or Economics, Business Methods, Précis, Commercial Geography and Industrial History.

A large number of the Secondary Schools offer facilities

to students who wish to take Commeree, and within the limits of the curriculum the course is very helpful to young people seeking employment, also as an introduction to more advanced work under a Vocational Committee or in the University.

In the School Year 1933-34, 453 students followed the Leaving Certificate and 2,285 the Intermediate Certificate courses in Commerce.

The Universities and Commercial Education

There are two Universities with four University Colleges in Saorstát Éireann: Dublin University, governing Trinity College, Dublin, and the National University, embracing three constituent Colleges, viz., Dublin, Cork and Galway.

All four Colleges provide courses leading to Degrees in Commeree. In addition, Trinity College offers a Diploma in Economics and Commercial Knowledge, which includes Economics, Economic History, Commercial Geography, Accountancy, Business Methods, Commercial Law, and a number of optional subjects. Dublin University, unlike the National, requires students to take an Arts Degree before qualifying for the Commerce Degree. The Degree courses are very comprehensive in a general rather than in a specialised manner. They are of undoubted value to young men and women intending to follow a commercial career, especially to those for whom executive posts are waiting in the business organisations of parents or relatives. A number of Commerce Degree men become apprenticed to Professional Accountants and during their apprenticeship years find the specialised courses provided in the Schools of Commerce under the authority of the City of Dublin Vocational Committee complete in every respect for their requirements. Also, many men and women, on obtaining the Commerce Degree, take the Higher Diploma in Education, and then seek teaching posts, particularly under the Vocational Committees.

Private Enterprise and Commercial Education

In Saorstát Éireann, as in every country, numerous private commercial organisations exist for the purpose of training young people in the office arts and for various competitive examinations. They are very definite in their outlook and objective and the demand for them is sufficient proof of their utility.

Conclusion

This brief survey of the facilities provided in Saorstát Éireann for Education in Commerce reveals nothing very new or startling. In all countries the same problems arise and very much the same means are taken to meet them.

Overseas friends will perhaps agree that Saorstát Éireann is not a laggard in the provision she makes for the Commercial Education of her young people, and that the means taken bear favourable comparison with those of other countries of perhaps bigger population, vaster financial interests, and greater variety of commercial and industrial activities."

SECOND SESSION—TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST, 2 P.M.—4.30 P.M.

Chairman : T. DAWE (British Association for Commercial Education)

The Content of Commercial Education

Dr. Pettegrew Young (Principal, Glasgow and West Scotland College)

"The struggle in which commercial education has had to engage for its very existence has in a general way tended to make the aim of that education technical efficiency rather than human development, and it is perhaps time to insist a little more on the necessity of making this education a preparation, and an adequate preparation, not only for commercial life but for all life, for the full inner life of the individual and for his full outward life as an essential participator in the life of the social community. We have thus what, in appearance at least, is a double problem to face. We have to enrich human personality and we have to impregnate human relationships with understanding and sympathy, having at the back of our minds some simple philosophy that may give meaning to our existence, and not forgetting that, unlike the Family, the Church, the State, commerce as an essential social system, cannot be institutionalised or fixed in a dogma, must always be in a state of flux

responding to the ever-varying wants and fancies of individuals and groups, and yet is the most penetrating and permanent of all social systems, in that it is but the outward manifestation of all relationship of man to man, of human intercourse, of exchange.

If this be admitted, it seems that the fundamental basis of our educational content must also be dual with a duality that is universal, not technical. The basis of our individual culture must be literature, the basis of our social culture must be history, and on these we must insist from beginning to end of any scheme of commercial education. They and they alone can provide that vital fluid of spiritual personality and general comprehending outlook which will make to live the dry bones of purely technical instruction.

There is no harm, there is perhaps considerable advantage that this literature in our case should be almost entirely literature of a commercial or economic character. All literatures are full of such. In English, apart from pure economists like Adam Smith on the *Wealth of Nations* or David Hume on the *Jealousy of Trade*, many of our greatest writers are commercially minded in their finest moments; Bacon's *Essays*, the old preachers, e.g. Jeremy Taylor on 'What shall it profit a man?', Bunyan with *'Vanity Fair'*, Defoe, Johnson, Goldsmith, Burke, Paley, essayists like Hazlitt, Lamb, De Quincey, Carlyle, Ruskin, Stevenson, and nearly all our novelists that depict the social life of their times—these are the authors that are at the disposal of those who seek masterpieces of literature that are 'commercially minded' in the widest sense of the term. And, of course, all the dramatists, from Shakespeare with *'The Merchant of Venice'* to our own contemporaries, present to us the infinitely varied facets of the economic problems of human Society. And all the literature of travel is in our domain.

It is inevitably linked up with economic history, and the history of commerce, a familiarity with which is essential to the comprehension of the facts and the points of view of this literature to which reference has been made. Despite the part played by individual fancy or political genius in the moulding of historical circumstance, human history has been and must of necessity be pre-eminently economic and commercial. It is our ignorance of this aspect of the history of foreign nations that is responsible for much of our failure to understand our neighbours, for our tendency to call 'prejudice' whatever differs from our own habits or tastes, and for our inability to see the needs to which we

must minister if we are successfully to open new markets or develop old ones. History thus understood is all-embracing, and if made a subject of intelligent study, is at once a means of developing and widening personal culture and a necessary soil to feed the roots of all technical commercial equipment, if this latter is not to be a matter of mere routine and unimaginative stagnation of stereotyped forms. No business activity can be inspiring or inspired, or can even maintain a *minimum of interest*, unless there is some measure of idealism behind it. Service in one form or another, is necessarily the vitamin of commercial idealism, and the history of human contacts—economic history—is the tale of the long experience of the race in achieving successful service or in disastrously failing to do so.

The underlying implication of this, of course, is that in all our dealings with human beings we can be neither just nor successful, if we do not do our utmost to discover and understand the other man's point of view. This is not merely a business commonplace, but a humanising process. Complete understanding leads to tolerance or to well-informed criticism which even the criticised can appreciate and perhaps welcome. Like all reasonable things in human relations it is bound also to be profitable, it is in accord with the one great truth of life that commerce has established—that nothing can be really good or worthy unless it is also profitable. Knowing the other man's point of view, his traditional tendencies, his tastes, his fancy, we say in commercial parlance that we can 'take advantage of them' to do 'good business.' But this 'taking advantage' means no wrong, it is in reality the best service, it is just what the other man wants you to do although he may not like the phrase we have used to describe it, he wants you to humour him, to minister to his point of view, he too gets 'advantage,' and the transaction is profitable and is thus justified of itself.

Literature and History, then, conceived in this manner, may provide the making of the perfect man and the perfect merchant; and unless the man is a merchant and the merchant a man, neither can achieve fullness of life, for neither, alone, can fulfil his double destiny of developing a personality and sharing the society of his fellows.

It will be readily noted that these two elements of the content of commercial education, if they are to have their full humanising effect, if, indeed, they are to be intelligently studied at all, involve other systematic studies. Literature

that is economically minded will in itself be a training in economics, but so incomplete as to necessitate a separate but correlated study of the whole subject of economics, not merely the development of economic theory, but even more essentially the practical economics of commerce and industry. Bacon on 'Plantations,' Addison on 'The Vision of Public Credit,' Steele's 'Stage Coach' or De Quincey's 'Mail-coach,' Goldsmith's 'Chinese Letters,' almost any novel of Dickens, Ruskin's 'Crown of Wild Olives,' inevitably call for the study of economic and social problems if the passages are to be really understood.

Other aspects of this literature link themselves easily and naturally to the study of foreign languages, and of psychology.

That a knowledge of foreign languages should be included in any course of commercial education is generally assumed. It is obvious that in the wider family of men there can be no common standard of judgment, intercourse or exchange, without a certain familiarity with each other's instrument of expression or, in default of that, a common language. Personally, however, I regret a tendency in many quarters to treat languages on the same footing as the office arts—as merely tools for use on occasion to facilitate international communication. For a language is far more than that, it is a living thing that enshrines the soul of a nation. Its idioms, its vocabulary, its syntax contain traces of every essential event in the history of the life of the nation; national joys and sorrows, national wounds and achievements, national vices and virtues, national character and its reactions to other national characters impress themselves indelibly upon a language. Surely in them we have something infinitely more important than a chance tool, if we are to think of commercial education as a complete preparation and training for life in human society.

An intelligent reader is not merely seeking æsthetic pleasure. Whether he wills it or not, he cannot avoid being a student of psychology. Motives, action and reaction of character are the sources of the interest he finds in much of his reading. And in commerce, where the motive-power of exchange is an omnipresent factor in progress or failure, psychology must continually occupy our attention. As a separate subject in education, it is closely allied to all our study of literature and travel and economics. In this country a rather sloppy study of psychology is incorporated in most courses of training in Salesmanship. As a serious practical study it should not be avoided in any commercial

education. Again the test of profitableness must be the criterion by which we must judge of its importance. From the point of view of the sympathetic understanding of our neighbour, it will stand the test, from the point of view of learning the commercial needs of our customers and of being able to supply them, it will stand the test as successfully.

So much for the studies that arise from and interlock with the one aspect of our essentially dual back-ground—literature.

A similar development reveals itself when we turn to the second aspect—history.

In concentrating on the history of commerce, or on economic history, we soon find ourselves thrust into a new study, that of economic geography which, if an essential in technical equipment for the commercial student, is just as important as a humanising factor. Products as we all are of our physical as well as our human environment, we cannot be understood apart from it. Of no country can be understood the needs in the past or the probable requirements in the future, of no country can we adequately realise the services we can render to it or the advantages we can receive from it, until we have some conception of the physical and climatic conditions that have largely determined the character of its economic evolution. In an age when the interests of nations are so closely intermingled throughout the world, when every individual thinks he has a right to be consulted with regard to the conduct of nations, jealousies and fears of war will never be calmed by denunciations and violent criticism that are ignorant of the economic conditions, largely geographical, that lie behind the crisis.

That such subjects as commercial legislation, banking, foreign exchange, transport and its relation to commodities, etc., are merely secondary developments of any study of practical economics and of history, will be obvious to anyone in this audience, and, in the time-limit at the disposal of the speaker, a mere mention alone of this may be made to remind us that, under the ægis of literature and history, both commercially minded, we cannot escape a full realisation of the various elements that compose the atmosphere in which the business-man must live, and move, and have his being. But by beginning with the wider view that our two original subject-matters provide, we are taking the necessary precaution to ensure that at no stage shall he forget his relations to others and to the community as a whole, shall he consider himself free to have a narrow view

of what is profitable to himself alone, shall he even consider himself a member of a special caste, but that he shall see all his activity as a share in the world-wide life, as a part at once affecting, and affected by, all human relationships.

How the office arts, what we may call the minor but essential machinery of commerce—book-keeping, shorthand, typewriting and the rest—are to be related to all this, is a simple question of pedagogical method that must be left to a later speaker, all questions of method being excluded from the pale within which my subject has to be confined. This much, however, may be safely said: Each of these subjects, commonly held to be of little value educationally, may become, and should become, in the hands of a thoroughly capable and enthusiastic teacher, excellent vehicles for the introduction of personal and social culture.

Finally, if it be thought that, by enveloping commercial education, from its elementary stages to its highest and most specialised, in a dual control and continuum of literature and history, one is soaring too high for the limited sphere within which our elementary students may have to move, let us remember two things. Firstly, every one of us, however humble our role, has to play a part in social relationships and in the directing of political power, while, at the same time, the fuller inner life of every soul should have humanism as an essential ingredient. Secondly, the curse of our industrial and commercial life is not drudgery but *meaningless* drudgery—doing work for a so-called “living,” without the least conception of its significance or of its place in the scheme of things. All work in the commercial sphere, still more than in the sphere of production, is not forced labour but a social service, work of national and international importance.”

The Methods of Instruction in Commercial Education

Dr. Stephenson (Head of Commercial Department,
Technical College, Cardiff, Wales)

“When one looks at the state of the world at the present day one can hardly fail to be struck by the prominence which is given to economic questions. Ample corroboration of this statement could be found, if required, from a perusal

of the catalogues of new publications issued by publishing firms, from an analysis of wireless talks, from a perusal of the press, or from conversations between private individuals. There is common agreement that our present-day troubles and difficulties are rooted in economic causes, though when an attempt is made to diagnose them in detail and prescribe for their removal, we find nothing but acute diversity of opinion. Yet, if we pause for a moment to reflect and consider how our present system has evolved, we shall find but little cause for wonderment at our present difficulties. The seeds of our modern economic system were planted in the course of the Industrial Revolution—an English movement which has had its counterpart in every developed country. The nineteenth century—which might almost be described as the harvest time of the movement—was an era of great technological advance, in the course of which we earned the appellation, once beloved of writers of school text-books, of ‘the workshop of the world.’ The products of our mines and factories were sent to the ends of the earth, and British goods were purchased by the peoples of every nation.

Towards the end of the century, however, there were signs of less tranquil times ahead. Other nations were rapidly learning the lesson which the British industrialist had taught. From France and Germany, from the U.S.A. and even from the Far East in Japan, came an increasing volume of competition. Thus by 1903, Professor Alfred Marshall in his famous Memorandum on Fiscal Policy could state, ‘England will not be able to hold her own against other nations by the mere sedulous practice of familiar processes. These are being reduced to such mechanical routine by her own and still more by American ingenuity that an Englishman’s labour in them will not continue long to count for very much more than that of an equally energetic man of a more backward race. . . . England’s place among the nations in the future must depend on the extent to which she retains industrial leadership. She cannot be *the* leader, but she may be *a* leader.’*

Educationalists have tended to take up the argument that industrial efficiency must demand vocational education in order to equip the future producers of the nation’s wealth for their task. This result was inevitable and, indeed,

* See “Official Papers by Alfred Marshall,” edited by J. M. Keynes, page 404.

quite logical. Training was given in pure and applied sciences, in chemistry and physics, engineering, fuel research and mining practice—and elaborate institutions grew up devoted to these purposes all over the country. The system of vocational education was to develop a producers paradise and the 'non-producer' was not to be encouraged. Yet even he could not be entirely suppressed, 'Black coated' workers kept coming forward, clamouring for attention. It was quite evident that these workers were required and had to be catered for, so that all over the country departments of commerce were added to the other sections of our technical institutions whose main activity was to provide instruction in the office arts—shorthand, typewriting and book-keeping.

Then came the War, followed by a period of prolonged depression in British industry. Technical development marched forward from one triumph to another, and the world's potential capacity for the production of wealth became greater than it has ever been in the history of the world. The old policy, now endowed with the sanctity of tradition continued in force. Technical education must be stimulated in order to increase our industrial efficiency. By this time, however, the fallacy which had governed the system for so long became too obvious to be completely suppressed. The major problem of the post-war period did not lie in the solution of the technical problems of production but in marketing what had been produced. Thus the Prince of Wales in an address to the International Congress on Commercial Education stated: 'The world-wide trade depression and economic disturbance, from which we have all suffered so much, has been largely caused by maladjustment of distribution and consumption to the world's capacity for production. . . . The urgent task for the world is to bring about the adjustments necessary to bring consumption and production into proper relationship.*'

Fortified by authoritative statements of this type, the technologist now turns on the business man in a state of righteous indignation. He claims that the problem of production is now solved and that an age of unlimited plenty stretches before us, but that the achievement of this Utopia is frustrated because the business man has failed to provide an efficient system of distribution.

Developments in the modern world are tending to

* *The Times*, 30th July, 1932.

emphasise more and more the vital necessity for a proper study of the problems of market distribution. The slowing up in the rate of populational growth in many developed countries has had considerable influence on consumer demand. Let us quote a recent League of Nations' Report on this matter: 'New foods come into use, the range and quality of clothing are much improved and the standard of housing also is raised; but for the staple foods and the commoner articles of general consumption, demand lags behind the increase in wealth. On the other hand, there tends to be a rapidly widening demand for more costly goods of durable consumption and also for the personal services, and for the perishable consumption goods which often are connected with the new durable goods, such as motor-cars.'* In other words the commercial problem is becoming more complex and the business men of the future must be armed with an adequate technique to cope with it, otherwise society must sustain heavy losses through inefficiency.

Let us look at the matter from yet another angle. According to the Census figures the number of persons occupied as proprietors of retail shops increased from 542,000 in 1921 to 651,000 in 1931, whilst a Ministry of Labour investigation covering the seven months ending in April, 1935, revealed the fact that 235,600 or 28 per cent. of the children leaving school in this period found employment in the distributive trades.† There are many who profess to see in this a sign of danger and of inefficiency. They consider that the proportion of the 'non-productive' to the 'productive' element in the population is too great and call for action to correct the tendency. Yet if we reflect that modern technical progress has rendered possible the production of a large volume of commodities with a relatively small labour force, is it not a natural development that more people should be required to distribute this national dividend? Moreover, the consumer demands an increasing number of services from the distributive system—a demand which must be catered for unless we are prepared to argue that the consumer should be debarred from making it. Thus there is nothing necessarily alarming in this growth of distribution: what is alarming is the little we know about it and the haphazard nature of the steps which we have so far taken to ensure efficiency in it.

* "World Economic Survey," 1933-34, page 64.

† *The Times*, 1st May, 1935.

General Problems of Administration

In deciding upon a suitable course of training for the prospective business man we are dealing with a problem of vocational education. It should be an obvious preliminary in framing a system of vocational education to ascertain which callings are characteristic of the area in question. This, however, is what we might term the static aspect of the problem and, in order to be on safe ground, we must consider also the dynamic. That is to say we must satisfy ourselves as to the trend of these occupations, which are declining and which are expanding and what is the likely trend in the next few years.

The second line of approach is that which is usually described as vocational guidance which has come in for a very large amount of attention since the War. The occupational analysis postulated above should have given the educational administration a clear picture of the openings for employment in its own district and also in the region with which it is connected. Thus the Education Authority of a municipality such as Cardiff, should be aware of the occupational possibilities not only of Cardiff but also of South Wales in general. Now the majority of those who pass through the schools will have to start their working lives in the same district and the probability is that a high proportion will remain there throughout their lives. This being taken for granted, we know what jobs are to be filled and we may proceed to use methods of vocational guidance to help students to choose the careers most suited to them. This does not mean that it is proposed to apply some rigid and dictatorial system to this work of sifting. Indeed, anyone who is acquainted with the present state of development of methods of vocational guidance will know that such a course of action would be out of the question.

It is desired to lay particular emphasis on the method of approach outlined above. Enthusiastic advocates of vocational guidance are sometimes led into the paths of unreality by a failure to grasp this sequence. One is led to suppose that suitable careers are indicated quite irrespective of the environment and the openings available. It is futile to tell a boy that he will make an excellent architect if the openings for architects are non-existent in his locality and if his economic circumstances render it impossible for him to undergo the training. It is not suggested that every student

should be irrevocably limited in his choice to the environment, but this will certainly be a safe rule to apply in the majority of cases.

Analysis of Vocational Activities

Taking the first and more fundamental of these two problems, viz., the nature of the occupations of the people of a district as governing their demand for educational facilities, let us take South Wales as an actual example, as this area has already formed the subject of a special study by the Board of Education. Since it is desired to submit certain of the conclusions of that Report to a critical examination we shall consider the same four counties, viz., Brecon, Carmarthen, Glamorgan and Monmouth. An examination of the Occupational figures of the 1931 Census reveals in an unmistakable manner the basis of the economic life of the area. As has been pointed out on innumerable occasions in recent years the foundation of the activities of this area is based upon primary industries—firstly the extractive industry of coal mining, and secondly coal using industries such as the metallurgical trades. Thus in Glamorgan and Monmouth approximately one-third of the occupied adult male population is engaged in Mining and Quarrying Occupations. In Brecon and Carmarthen this group provides the largest single source of employment, but is closely approached by Agriculture. Another category of occupation—Metal workers—also employs over 50,000 people in Glamorgan together. It is clearly these occupations which are characteristic of the area. Of course, here as elsewhere, we find every category of occupation represented since, no matter how specialised a region may become, subsidiary industries are invariably attracted.

If now we turn to the 'Commercial' group we find again some of the most important categories of employment. Thus in Glamorgan and Monmouth alike, the second largest group of employment is furnished by 'Commercial, Finance and Insurance Occupations,' closely followed by 'Transport and Communications.' It is in this connection that the official Report on 'Educational Problems in the South Wales Coalfields' fell into serious error. This document provides an enumeration of the various industries of the area, but the reference to these commercial activities is of the briefest, emphasis being laid on the fact that they are 'dependent on the main industries of the area.' This is true as

far as it goes for no one can deny that, without such industries, commerce would be superfluous. At the same time, however, is it not equally true that, without commercial activity the industries would be equally impotent?

A careful study of the Census figures cannot fail to demonstrate the existence of a problem of commercial education in the area as well as one of technical training in the narrow sense in which it is so frequently used. The figures we have so far considered, however, relate to the whole counties in the area and, in order to focus our problem more clearly we must examine the occupational distribution in a little more detail. For this purpose, let us consider the figures of the towns of Cardiff, Newport, Swansea, Merthyr and the Rhondda Urban District. Of these, the last two are situated in the hinterland and, as we should expect, the predominance of 'Extractive Occupations' is very marked. Here, again, of course, we find practically all groups represented, but as to the main occupation of the district there can be no doubt. Coal mining leads the field. When, however, we turn to the coastal towns of Cardiff, Newport and Swansea, we find the development equally marked. Commercial activities stand out very strongly, particularly in Cardiff and Newport. Indeed, so far as Cardiff is concerned, something like one-third of the commercial workers are to be found there. In all three, there is also considerable occupation for metal workers, particularly in Swansea where this constitutes the largest single group. Summing up our conclusions so far we may say that the hinterland of South Wales is concerned with the extraction of the principal raw material—coal, whilst the outlets of the ports through which it passes to the outer world are the focal points of commercial activity. Thus South Wales obviously requires a system of education which bears these two facts in mind.

Let us now continue our analysis a stage further by restricting our attention to the city of Cardiff—the most important of these outlets, and which illustrates excellently the problems with which the commercial educationalist is confronted. In the first place we have a large number of people engaged in the retail trade—some in the capacity of employers and managers and some as salesmen and shop assistants. In a certain measure, of course, we should find this in every large centre of population, but in such a city as Cardiff it is of special importance since it forms a shopping centre in 'durable consumers' goods' for the Rhondda Valley. Moreover, its position as a distributing centre is

further confirmed by the figures relating to wholesale businesses. Now all these retailers have certain problems in common—they require a knowledge of accounts and of business economics as applied to retailing. In such subjects as these, therefore, they may be treated broadly as a group. At the same time, however, each class of business has a technical aspect peculiar to itself—it is handling a special commodity. Hence we must be prepared to pick out the principal classes of retail business and institute special classes to cater for their needs. Thus textiles and clothing, grocery and provisions, and meat are seen to be outstanding.

From our knowledge of the area we shall expect to find a very large body of commercial workers connected with the coal trade making their own special demand for educational facilities. Unfortunately the form of the Census returns gives us no indication of the numerical strength of this class, though we should expect to find them under such headings as Brokers, Agents and Factors; Commercial travellers; Company directors, Secretaries, Managers and Clerks. Here again there is scope for instruction of both a general and specialised type—a matter of vital importance in view of the economic characteristics of the area which Cardiff serves. Under the heading of 'Finance and Insurance,' insurance occupations stand out, though banking is definitely underrated in the figures since a large number of bank employees are included under the heading of 'Other Clerks.' It is interesting to note from the figures that 'Typists'—which in the minds of so many monopolise commercial education—are by no means of outstanding importance as compared with other clerical occupations. The omnibus item 'Other Clerks' as already indicated requires further analysis in order to be of any real value.

Under the heading of Transport and Communication we have again a very important class. The importance of the railway and water transport branches is obvious when we remember that something like 80 per cent. of the coal output of the area goes into the export trade. In addition, however, we have the new and very important road transport group which has made rapid strides during the last ten years. Closely allied with this group in some respects is that devoted to warehousing and storage—commercial functions of great importance but unostentatiously performed and therefore neglected. Finally, there is a small but important Professional Group together with a considerable body engaged in Public Administration. This latter group we should

expect to find strongly represented in Cardiff on account of its importance as an administrative centre for Glamorgan, and for the most of the central governmental work of South Wales.

The General Commercial Course

Such are the broad outlines of the problem of providing a system of commercial education in such a community as Cardiff. It is now necessary to turn our attention to the manner in which we should propose to arrive at a solution. We may start by establishing a number of general principles, the first of which is the necessity for a sound general education of a non-vocational type. This principle is of vital importance at the present day when there seems a very serious danger of its being overlooked. The vocational bias is often introduced before the educational foundations are properly laid so that the whole of the subsequent operations are endangered.

Thus we may lay down the rule that our educational system should contain institutions—mainly elementary and secondary schools—whose business it is to provide a sound general education for all the pupils passing through them. Secondly, that vocal instruction should be the work of a further set of co-ordinated institutions—technical colleges, schools of commerce, of technology and the like. We shall not in this paper concern ourselves with the important topic of university education in commerce since, after all this is a matter only for a minority.

Assuming that the student has received this foundation of a general education by passing through a secondary school, and has decided to take up a career in commerce, we have next to decide what shall be the first stage of his vocational training. If we assume that he has not yet entered business but is contemplating a course of full-time instruction with the object of doing so, our line of action should be perfectly clear. We should give him the benefit of a *General Commercial Course* of twelve months' duration. His training will take a definite vocational turn, but of a non-specialised character. The function of the general commercial course is to provide a basis of commercial training, but, as the student has not yet entered upon his business career he obviously cannot profitably attempt to specialise in any way. There is, however, an ample field for study in acquiring that body of general commercial knowledge which will form the essential basis for any future progress.

In order that this course may achieve the requisite degree of success, it is essential that there should exist a high degree of co-ordination between the Higher School of Commerce and the various secondary schools. The students leaving these schools should be given complete information with regard to the facilities available for vocational studies and also the objects to be achieved as the outcome of these courses. Every student who is in a position to avail himself of the post-secondary course thereby gains substantial advantages even though he postpones the commencement of his business career for twelve months. He can, during that period master the essential groundwork and in consequence, when he enters business can take up specialised studies appropriate to that business so that his theory and practice progress together.

Subjects of the General Commercial Course

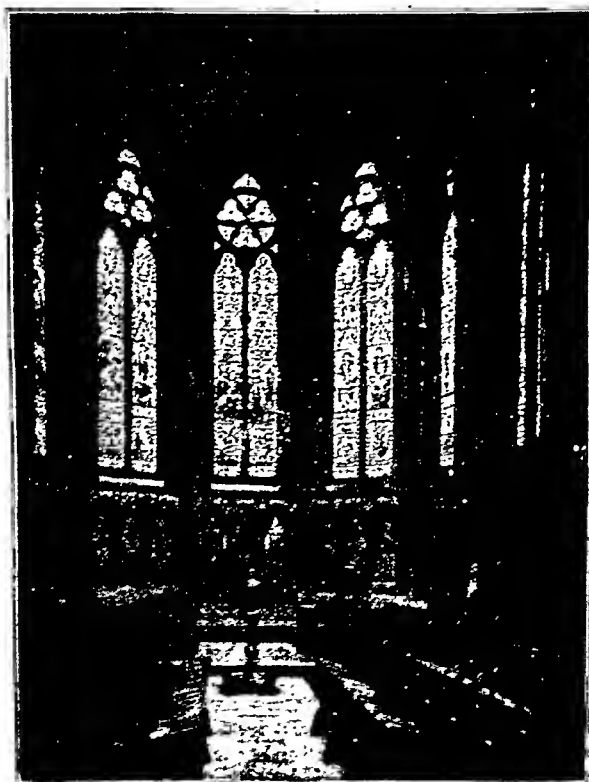
The subjects of the general commercial course are grouped according to their relationship to the business unit itself. The business organism, as the structural unit of the economic system has formed the basis of any systematic scheme of study. The student is therefore introduced to the business unit in the subject of Business Economics which investigates the internal organisation and working of the typical units encountered in practical business life. In this connection it should be emphasised that Business Economics, rightly taught, is not the old subject of Commercial Practice served under a more modern name. The routine of commerce in the narrow sense can be learned in the office under the practical conditions of business life in a very short space of time. To spend time in attempting to teach such a subject in a school of commerce is a great waste of effort and will end in the student not being able to see the wood for the trees. The study of business economics will enable the student, when he commences business, to see his practical work in a true perspective. He will be able to perform his duties with intelligence and will not have his mental horizon restricted to the work which lies immediately before him.

Upon this foundation are erected the remaining subjects of the course. In the first place, we may distinguish a group of subjects which are closely connected with the *internal* working of the business undertaking. These are three in number, and comprise English and Commercial Correspondence, Commercial Mathematics, and Book-keeping and Accounts. The importance of the first of these, namely

English needs no emphasis. To write and speak one's native tongue fluently and correctly is an asset in any walk of life, but in business it is indispensable. To compose a business letter which is free from ambiguity and productive of a good impression upon the recipient requires both training and practice, but owing to the overwhelming importance of the written word in business dealings, the necessary skill must be acquired. The second subject Commercial Mathematics, likewise demands special attention. The student will have already acquired considerable mathematical training in the course of his secondary or public school career and will be familiar with general principles. The application of these principles to commercial work cannot always be undertaken without special instruction in the subject, the lack of which may cause the best of mathematicians to find himself at a loss if confronted by specialised commercial problems. Book-keeping and Accounts, the last of these internal subjects is concerned with the systematic recording of every aspect of the activity of the business. At the present day no business can afford to dispense with such a record whilst every business man must be in a position to interpret the records as revealed by the books, so that the results obtained may be utilised for the benefit of the business.

The internal activities of the business obviously comprise only one-half of the picture. Every concern enters into relations with other units in the economic system, so that we need to study subjects bearing on what we may term *external relationships*. These subjects are again three in number, namely, Commercial Law, Foreign Markets and the History of Commerce. The first of these, Commercial Law, is not used, as is popularly supposed, for the purpose of aggression, but rather for defence. It is of the greatest assistance in business in enabling one to avoid legal pitfalls without having recourse to the law courts. Litigation is always a profitless business and is avoided by the prudent business man whenever possible. That the study of foreign markets is of vital importance to the people of this country is a fact which is at last beginning to be appreciated. In a locality engaged in the import and export trade it is a prime necessity. Finally, the History of Commerce should receive attention from every business man who would understand aright the trend of current events. History has been called the study of the past, in the light of the present, for the benefit of the future. The events of to-day are the direct

development of a geographical imagination and for a better understanding of the customs and conditions of other lands. We must seek out new markets and extend existing ones if we are to reap the benefit of our technical skill. The development of facilities for commercial education will provide a key to the problems of the present day and will do more than any other single factor to hasten the return to prosperity which the world is so badly in need."



{Photo: Alden (Oxford)}

EXETER COLLEGE CHAPEL (1856-9)

EDUCATIONAL CRAFTS SECTION

Chairman : PRINCIPAL JONATHAN LLOYD (Director of Studies, College of Handicraft, Pentre Rhondda, South Wales).

Secretary : EDWARD HOLDEN (Chartered Structural Engineer, Technical College, Gloucester).

Place of Meeting : Mansfield College, Mansfield Road.

It is a pleasure to record that with one exception, the whole of the original programme was successfully carried through, the exception being the failure of one reader to turn up on Wednesday, the day we had notice officially to shorten our session.

The attendance at the three morning sessions was very good, numbering on Tuesday over 160, on Wednesday 70, and on Thursday over 60. The delegates and visitors were drawn from home and overseas, among them being five chief education officers, inspectors and organisers, and prominent members of L.E.A.'s, including the President of the Association of Education Committees. At least fifteen countries were represented, and many of our overseas friends were with us to gain helpful information and guidance. The discussions were interesting and fruitful, and should establish a sound advance in the further adoption and development of courses of art and craft training in all types of schools and colleges. Speakers and workers from the department gave mutual co-operation with other sections dealing with matters of common interest, laying a foundation for a possible fruitful partnership in future conferences.

Through the courteous invitation of Director W. A. Robertson (Forest Products Research Laboratory at Princes Risborough), a party visited the station on the afternoon of Tuesday. The methods of modern research on timber and timber products were fully demonstrated by the officers in charge of the various sections, and the visit was much enjoyed.

Although every effort was made by invitation to secure

the co-operation of foreign and overseas workers in the field of educational crafts, the short time given to the chairman and secretary for the compilation and organisation of the programme precluded such help, therefore the readers of papers were drawn entirely from English educational workers. Through the election and appointment of chairman and secretary, which was duly confirmed by the W.F.E.A. Directors, we hope to enlist a wider field of helpers, and to secure a better continuity of effort. With this object in view we have already made preliminary contacts for overseas co-operation for the Tokyo 1937 conference.

FIRST SESSION, TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST,

9.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

The Chairman gave a welcome to the assembled delegates and visitors, and called upon the Secretary to make the necessary official and general announcements.

The Chairman's Address

New Horizons

Principal Lloyd said: "At the risk of being reminded that there is nothing new under the sun, I venture to direct your attention to certain aspects of the subject of educational crafts which have come into special prominence in recent years. After half a century of experience in the teaching of various forms of educational crafts in this country, we have accumulated a store of knowledge relating to both content and method, only to find that a changing world, industrially and socially, has rendered much of this knowledge of little practical value. We have entered on a period when the increasing mechanisation of life has brought problems to the forefront which cannot be solved by the old methods. The specialist teacher of craftwork stands at the moment in particular need of maintaining openness of mind and elasticity of method if solutions are to be found.

Many important subjects are being discussed at this conference, but I believe we can claim that there is not one which, in its immediate effect on the young life of the country and its ultimate effect on society as a whole, has more vital

consequences than educational craftwork. There are many signs that education, to borrow the phrase of Sir J. C. Smuts, 'has struck its tents and is on the march.' Nowhere is this more evident than in the part of education we have to deal with in this section. In England the world war gave a new impetus to the teaching of educational craftwork. Practical considerations, such as its value to an industrial nation, counted for much, but the real driving force behind it was a recognition that the old idea of education was too static. If education was to function in the brave new world that was promised after the war, it must be conceived of as an activity of the whole personality; it must stress creative power rather than the accumulation of knowledge; it must develop real skills and train in the appreciation of what is beautiful. In practice this tendency has shown itself in the increasing attention given to good design and appropriate finish in connection with craftwork in schools. Mere construction and the skilful manipulation of tools is seen to be not enough. Consideration must be given to line and form so that the completed article shall be a joy to the pupil who produced it. This means that in many cases courses will have to be recast, new methods will have to be tried, and the whole subject take on a new aspect.

But not only have we caught glimpses of this new horizon with its promise of beauty as well as utility in school craftwork, but there has been opened out before us the part that we should play in preparing for the more fruitful use of the leisure time of our people. The contemplation of increasing hours of leisure without the capacity to employ them with profit, brings with it the reflection that shortened hours of labour may be a curse rather than a blessing. The power of evil, we were reminded in our childhood, was especially active where there were idle hands, and experience in a distressed area has verified the old saying. Can educational craftwork offer a substantial contribution to the solution of the problem of leisure? I believe it can. Professor L. P. Jacks has said that we are 'a skill-hungry people,' and rightly conceived schemes of craftwork carried out by enthusiastic teachers, will do much to ensure that the pupils leaving our schools will take away with them a living interest in some artistic or constructive craft that will enable them to live a fuller life. In this connection William Morris has told us: 'The pleasure which ought to go with the making of every piece of handicraft has for its basis the keen interest which every healthy man takes in healthy

life, and is compounded chiefly of three elements, variety, hope of creation, and the self-respect that comes from a sense of usefulness ; to which must be added that mysterious bodily pleasure which goes with the deft exercise of bodily power.' If we are to develop a healthy social life we shall need in every locality community craftrooms, properly equipped and supervised and open to all, with every inducement given to those who feel the urge to express themselves through their hands.

This brings us in sight of the part educational crafts should play in a well-ordered society. To train up a generation of children by practical work in school, to realise that production rather than exploitation should be the aim in life, is bound to have reactions of great social consequence. It is not without significance that a new experiment in social organisation overseas, has on its banner a hammer and sickle.

In our discussions we shall view the subject of educational crafts from many angles. The rapid development of post primary schools, which is a feature of English education, has focused attention on the need for more practical work in this type of school. Whether the work is to be mainly of a specialised character, aiming at a relatively high degree of skill in one material, or on broader lines, will be for us to discuss. In any case we must see that the pupil learns to honour labour with the hands, and to respect the tool as the instrument by means of which man, through the ages, has been expressing himself in making things of use and beauty. This will not be achieved unless the work is carried out on sound craft lines. In thinking of the tool we must not lose sight of the fact that in certain branches of educational craftwork the machine tool has its place as well as the hand tool, and training in setting up, controlling and manipulating machines is a valuable asset in modern life. The part that craftwork should play in the education of the adolescent, especially the later years, is largely unexplored territory. Examination considerations have narrowed the field of practical activities for this type of pupil, with social reactions that many feel are definitely harmful. It is a sign of the times that in a number of cases the great English public schools are doing excellent pioneer work in this direction, and there is abundant evidence that the spirit of Sanderson of Oundle lives on.

The social problem that in this country overshadows all others is that of unemployment. The attempt to deal with

the unemployed juvenile by means of Junior Instruction Centres organised by the Ministry of Labour, has caused grave uneasiness to many interested in educational advance. The general problem is not one for discussion here, however, but the part craftwork can play in the training of unemployed adolescents is an aspect of the problem that we cannot neglect. Englishmen are supposed, traditionally, to love compromise, and the way in which craftwork has developed in our schools illustrates this. In our excellent infants' schools for children up to seven years of age, we have had the conception of education as an activity worked out very successfully, and in many of our senior schools for pupils over eleven years of age the constructional crafts, such as woodwork and metalwork, have received adequate recognition. Between these extremes we have what an English writer on education once described as 'the neglected middle.'* With the reorganisation of our school system which is going on at present, it is to be hoped that the problem of appropriate forms of practical activities for pupils of from seven to eleven years of age will be solved, so that a co-ordinated system of educational craftwork may be established for the whole school life of the pupil. This ideal was envisaged more than twenty years ago and it was felt then that the training colleges for teachers blocked the way of advance. But even here there is movement, and the future is full of promise.

The education of the child—the whole child—is our aim. The part that educational crafts can play in the process is for us to explore. We have reached, I believe, a new stage on the journey. New horizons are opening before us. I hope this conference may help us to clearer views. May we press forward with the assurance that in education as in life—'The best is yet to be.' "

The Place of Educational Crafts in Post-Primary Schools

Professor Dr. Frank Smith (University of Leeds)

"Post-primary schools, in the widest sense, include all children above the age of eleven plus, but as other papers will deal with the secondary school I shall omit it here.

* Dr. P. B. Ballard.

Nor shall I include the selective central school, and the junior technical school, with their own special problems, for they contain only a minority of the pupils between eleven and fourteen, and I want to emphasise the importance of that great mass of older pupils who remain in senior and non-selective central schools, and probably number about seventy-five per cent. of our child population within that age group.

I shall say nothing here of the school-leaving age, but deal with the situation as it exists at this moment in England. Nor shall I say much specifically of girls, though in the general statements I make I hope that their applicability to girls as well as boys will be understood.

To anybody who is a believer in the value of handicrafts as an indispensable part of education, alike on physiological, psychological, cultural, social and utilitarian grounds, the present position is disappointing. How disappointing might be illustrated from Dr. Spencer's articles in the *Times Educational Supplement*, where the deficiencies in school buildings are revealed. When the Education Act of 1918 said that it was the duty of the L.E.A. to make adequate and suitable provision 'for including in the curriculum of the public elementary schools, at appropriate stages, practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities and requirements of the children,' and when the Act of 1921 defined practical instruction as 'instruction in cookery, laundrywork, housewifery, dairy-work, handicrafts and gardening, and such other subjects as the Board of Education declare to be subjects of practical instruction,' it looked as though the promised land was in sight. I may remind you that the writers on education, those people whom we respect so deeply in our conference rooms and ignore so cheerfully in our class-rooms, had urged the importance of practical instruction at any rate since the fourth century B.C. I cannot stop to show the varied reasons which led Plato and Aristotle, Rabelais and Montaigne, Comenius and Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Froebel, to assert that practical instruction was the natural way for children, and that the perpetual error of the school was to substitute words for things. I am only concerned to note that in 1918 our educational leaders in Whitehall had become convinced that the case was made out.

They had played with the idea frequently before that time. They had been interested in certain experiments in the same direction at least a hundred years before; indeed, they had promoted to high office the chief exponent of such methods,

Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth, and with their approval he had introduced some noteworthy reforms. They had commended some promising experiments in post-primary education where practical instruction was designed suitable to the 'ages, abilities and requirements' of the children. But they afterwards wavered and fell back. In the period of Payment by Results, practical instruction disappeared, and experiments were not allowed. A blight descended on elementary education more disastrous to children than a second black death. Verbal instruction, mechanical rules and repressive discipline were offered which were totally unsuited to the 'ages, abilities and requirements' of the victims. The traditions engendered by Payment by Results long remained; their echoes still persist. I was in a school recently where children of Standard I, aged eight, had just undergone written and oral examination in seven or eight subjects, exactly as I did about the year 1890. Still, we should regard the Act of 1918 as a landmark.

The report of the Consultative Committee in 1926 lifted the problem of post-primary education into a new importance. The principle of the differentiation of schools, and the replanning of the curriculum to suit the child were worked out forcefully and convincingly. Practical instruction was to be given an important place. 'At the age of eleven or twelve,' said the Hadow Report, 'children are waking to various new interests suggested by the world about them. Many of them are already beginning to think of their future occupations, and anxious to be doing something which seems to have an obvious connexion with them. Many more, without having any clear idea what they will do when they leave school, feel ill at ease in an atmosphere of books and lessons, and are eager to turn to some form of practical and constructive work, in which they will not merely be learners but doers, and in a small way creators. If education is to retain its hold upon children at this critical stage of their development, it must use, and not reject, these natural and healthy impulses. It must recognise that there are many minds, and by no means minds of an inferior order, for which the most powerful stimulus to development is some form of practical or constructive activity.'

These are wise words, and they should provide a charter for a large proportion of that seventy-five per cent. we are considering. That many children are 'ill at ease in an atmosphere of books and lessons' of the traditional type every teacher knows. That the Hadow Committee had in

mind a new conception of post-primary education is, I think, obvious. That many promising experiments in this and other countries are afoot I know full well. I am also forced to the conclusion that we have not achieved in any satisfactory measure the intentions of the authors of the Hadow Report.

Let us consider a little further the nature and needs of the boys and girls who are here our concern. Most of them, to quote the recent pamphlet of Political and Economic Planning, 'are destined to spend their working lives performing the thousand and one humdrum tasks upon which the maintenance of our civilisation depends. Relatively few of the boys (probably not more than one in five) are likely to be engaged in a skilled occupation for which a disciplined training is necessary. Most of the girls will probably go on to a few short years of more or less unskilled work before they marry and take on the responsibility for running a home. All of them, however, will be living through what is likely to be a very difficult period of social and economic change. The beginning of the decline of our population, the challenge of new competition in our overseas markets, the increasing tempo of technological change and the probable reorganisation of our industrial system are all factors which will help to determine their welfare. It is desirable, therefore, that such qualities as precision and reliability, readiness to re-learn and change, and easy adaptability in the face of rapidly changing circumstances should be developed in most of them, rather than highly specialised abilities. In view of the probable increase of leisure they should also be prepared for a wide range of non-vocational activities, according to their gifts and inclinations, and they should be encouraged to explore every possibility of interesting and zestful living.'

Several years ago Mr. Arnold Freeman gave us a study of a number of boys, selecting the most nomadic of them, i.e. those who had changed their occupations frequently in the first year after school, and who drifted into any kind of unskilled occupation and out of it. It was a depressing picture, and although the industrial psychologists have since made a study of this labour turnover, they have added nothing of vividness to what Mr. Freeman wrote in 1914. But in one direction the outlook for the boy is infinitely worse now. He is regarded as lucky if he can drift into a job; he drifts out easily enough. There is little mental or moral stimulus in the environment of these boys apart from the home. Mr. Freeman showed that the good home and a certain

innate strength of will were required to combat an environment that was full of snares. And since many homes are not good and marked strength of will relatively rare, the environment of the street, the picture palace, the dance hall, the dog track, reduces them to a low level of existence ; some rapidly degenerate into the unemployable.

The popular cry that springs from a consideration of facts like these is Educate for Leisure, and there have been important claims that the best education for leisure is by the crafts. Perhaps for a large number of those I am thinking about it may yet prove to be so, but the evidence so far that it is so is not forthcoming. What percentage of our boys make a reasonably difficult article in wood with proper tools after they leave school ? If we were sure that the figure was respectably high we might claim with a little more certainty that we were educating for leisure : the signs are that the percentage figure is disappointingly low. Girls are in better case : they must sometimes sew, and cook and launder ; many of them must do these things constantly, but where is the boy to carry on woodwork ? He has no tools, no bench, no material, no space, no encouragement. Provided with these things at school, they are suddenly taken from him at the age of fourteen, and we deceive ourselves if we imagine that more than a few bold spirits triumph over the obstacles they have suddenly to face. We have little cause yet to claim that we have won much success in preparing the bulk of our pupils with those hobbies and occupations and relaxations that make leisure fruitful and satisfying.

There is another important aspect of life of which we need to be constantly reminded. It is a truism that ' life educates,' which means that the school is only ancillary to a larger process. In an earlier day life offered the boy and girl both a knowledge of and participation in activities which were close to the primary needs of man. The carpenter, smith, weaver, cobbler, miller and other craftsmen were at work all about him ; he knew something of what they were doing ; in many cases he helped one or other of them. But modern industry has withdrawn itself from before his eyes ; it has built large factories and installed machinery, with the result that the boy sees nothing made : goods appear somehow in the shop windows, but he is reduced to the passive rôle of looking at them. Remarkably as modern life has opened out new experiences and wider horizons it has also curtailed the first-hand and active experience of the boy.

Mr. de la Mare gives a different list : cooks, gardeners, knife-grinders, lamp-lighters, butchers, bakers, plumbers, house-painters, glaziers, paviors, dustmen and sweeps—as ‘life’s vivid commentary to a child’s first books.’ They are domestic and familiar occupations, only semi-skilled. Two or three of them have already disappeared ; two or three more are done in places removed from the child’s observation.

When Rousseau decided that Emile should learn carpentry he wanted to safeguard the child of the rich from the artificiality of the school by bringing him face to face with reality ; no such safeguard was necessary at that time for the children of the poor. They had a natural education through their own environment. But modern times threaten to reverse the position : the children of the rich have access to active hobbies, to toys that stimulate ingenious manipulation, and to games that promote the co-ordination of hand and eye, whereas the children of the poor, except as the school can provide these stimuli, may find little stimulus or opportunity for activity in their environment. That is why the function of the school has changed. What life has withdrawn the school must try to supply.

If we are to realise the dictum of the English Board of Education—that the curriculum should fit the child, and not the child the curriculum—we should be looking for considerable change in the post-primary school. For the traditional view that the child must fit the ready-made curriculum dies hard, and there are plenty of post-primary schools where little worthy of the name of practical instruction is offered. In a school recently brought to my notice there was handwork for all but two sections—the brighter boys who were said to have more important things to do and could not spare the time, and the later arrivals in the school (owing to some local difficulty some of the boys were not transferred till the age of twelve plus) who were said to be trying to catch up the earlier arrivals in the ‘essential subjects.’ Makeshift arrangements of this kind suggest that the importance of practical work is not realised, and that the school is slow to re-adapt itself to new circumstances. For the principle that the curriculum must fit the child is broad enough to enable us to scrap worn-out conventions, and to reshape our schools according to the three essential factors that should govern them—the nature of the child, the environment in which he lives and the future for which he is preparing. To deal properly with these

three factors would take much time ; I must content myself here with the brief quotations I have already used from the Hadow Report and from the pamphlet on Political and Economic Planning. Unless the post-primary school can give some joy in creative or active work, can develop some purpose that will function in after years, can bestow a measure of culture and education through the familiar occupations of daily life, our educational system will not serve to rescue the vast mass of our workers from the dehumanising influence of modern industry and from the enervating effects of the passive enjoyment of leisure. George Sturt, in describing the passing of an old wheelwright's shop, comments : ' No higher wage, no income, will buy for men that satisfaction which of old—until machinery made drudges of them—streamed into their muscles all day long from contact with iron, timber, clay, wind and wave, horse-strength. It tingled up into the niceties of touch, sight and scent. The very ears unawares received it, as when the plane went swinging over the wood, or the exact chisel went tapping into the hard ash with gentle sound. Although they have so much more leisure men can now taste little solace in life, of the sort that skilled hand work used to yield to them.' Can the school give some little taste of this solace and can it give a thirst for more ?

In few schools do we devote sufficient time to the practical work which should be so important a part of post-primary education. The Institute of Handicraft Teachers, a few years ago, suggested that from ten to twelve hours a week should be given to a group of subjects which included the crafts, applied science, technical drawing and art, and I see nothing unreasonable in the proposal. It gives rather more than a third of the school week to this side of the work ; it leaves more than half the time for physical education, for instruction about the modern world, and for training in the mother tongue.

But modern practice falls very short of this arrangement. It has already been shown that some boys are receiving no craft training at all ; in the large majority of schools they get one session of $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours a week, which in far too many cases is confined to woodwork alone. History forges fetters for us : the woodwork 'centre' of early days, isolated, detached, utilitarian, has largely gone, but its separateness sometimes persists when it is brought within the school premises. A watertight scheme of work, with nothing more than a few artificial contacts with the rest of the school work,

to which the pedantic and high-sounding name of correlation is given, is no infrequent occurrence. The teapot stands, garden labels, tooth-brush racks and wall brackets are still serving in some places; the most appalling thing I ever saw made was called a thimble bracket, which the boys of a slum school were solemnly alleged to be making for their mothers! Yet we talk of a curriculum that will fit the child, and imagine that twenty boys in a class are to find creative satisfaction in making a thimble bracket which nobody will use.

I know there has been a marked revolt from the artificiality of schemes of this kind, with their foolish pretensions, and that the current has been authoritatively diverted into another channel. For the first six or twelve months now the boys need not make anything; they are to acquire the correct technique of using plane, saw, chisel and gauge correctly; they are to master the lapped halving, the dovetail, and mortise and tenon joints so thoroughly that they can then proceed to make those beautiful objects that adorn our exhibitions. In some districts the grind lasts for six months, in others for twelve, and there are eloquent claims about the improved craftsmanship it begets, and the greater satisfaction the boy feels in being able to perform better work.

I do not belittle better craftsmanship and higher standards of accuracy, but they are ideals which are not easily grown in boys of eleven. I have made careful inquiry for a considerable time as to how schemes of this kind are regarded by boys, and I have formed the impression, which is the one we might have expected, that the reactions are different. The quicker boys, who discern something of the purpose and value of the drill, and find it of use, react fairly well; they get through the period, at any rate of six months, on the initial enthusiasm with which they began, and are then able to attempt real jobs with confidence. The average boys, who are apt to regard all drill as a nuisance and discern little promise of reward in it, have to be kept to the task by the diverse stratagems the teacher can use: and it is significant that in some places the original twelve months' grind has had to be cut down. The slower and duller boys, who never will be craftsmen in the sense that is so often implied, find the six months' drill a heavy trial, and twelve months a curse. Is this the way to stimulate the joy of construction, to beget a lively curiosity in things, to prepare for leisure? I go so far as to say that there is not a worse way, and that there is not a more complete disregard of the view that the curriculum must fit the child.

Girls, fortunately, escape this abyss. If they are learning how to cook they do not mix buns that will never be cooked, or put icing on blocks of wood that will never be eaten. They are not required to learn the secrets of the coal-heated oven, the gas stove and the electric cooker before they make something. They do not beat eggs and mix flour merely to acquire the arts of beating and mixing. But that is what some modern exponents of the crafts are arguing: boys must plane and chisel in order to plane and chisel; making things they want to make is to be postponed. We have come back to a worship of technique for technique's sake, and the servant threatens to become the master. Sam Weller once quoted the charity school-boy, who, having learnt his A B C plaintively wondered whether it was worth while going through so much to get at so little; there must be thousands of boys in our post-primary schools who, having wrestled with a dovetail joint whose purpose is still hidden from them, ask the same question and answer it in the negative. This is not the way in which a sentiment for active hobbies is built up.

I was in a school a few weeks ago where they proceed differently. One boy, under eleven, was knocking together a very big box in a rough way and with an energy that was impressive. There were no dovetail joints; it was a rush job. I discovered the reason. He had returned that morning from a week-end camp the proud possessor of a grass-snake, and he had to have it in safe keeping before night. Other boys were busy with other jobs, and they all knew what they were doing. The craftsmanship of the older boys seemed to me of a very high order, but it was a slow growth, and lack of technique was not allowed to stand in the way of satisfying a felt need. It was not a school of poor boys, and every boy was encouraged early to make a tool chest of his own, and to stock it gradually with his own tools which he would take away with him. Perhaps in matters of technique this school could show less than others; in keenness, spontaneity, originality, enjoyment and training for leisure I have never seen its equal.

If I am accused of pleading for handwork and not handicraft my reply is that I am pleading for both, and for the first as a step to the second. The acquirement of technique, the satisfaction in what Sturt calls the niceties of touch, sight and scent, the discovery of the harmony between design, material and final use—these are growths that require time and care; they represent the adult view, not the boy's.

Technique, important as it is in the end, is the servant of greater values. To exalt it beyond that is the crime of the pedant. What the old schoolment did for Latin grammar, exalting it above the content of literature, what nineteenth century teachers did for natural science, exalting scientific definition above the wonders of the universe, what the scholiasts did for the classics, exalting note and comment above the text, that crime is committed in the crafts when technique is exalted into an end in itself. I find teachers everywhere worried by this question, and the more so because the view I am opposing is being urged by high authority.

I must guard myself again from being misunderstood. I am not pleading for a freedom that ignores rules and avoids difficulties. There is a place for technique, and that is when its lack is felt, and its values are obvious.

When that moment arrives the drill can be made exacting and intensive. Drudgery is endurable when it serves a purpose, but the purpose must be felt by him who does the drudgery. When the purpose is obscure and the drill seems unending, then drudgery is unbearable, and the effects are harmful.

I must draw to an end. I began by saying that the present position is unsatisfactory. The crafts do not take their due place in the post-primary system, and our treatment of them is too rigid, too formal, too pedantic. We think too much of results and too little of the boy's attitudes and needs. We are too much attached to wood as a medium. We give too little choice of material. Ideally we should let the pupils gain some knowledge of a variety of media and the appropriate tools, and after such experimenting they should be free to choose the craft they will develop as far as they can before leaving school, remaining free to alter their choice, if, after a further period, they feel they have made a mistake. This is the ideal, and while practical and economic reasons will make its full acceptance difficult, the principle is important. It is just as foolish to expect all boys to be interested in wood craft as it is to expect them all to be wooden-headed. Yet our courses in woodwork, with some metalwork added somewhat apologetically in the last year, imply that all children can be shaped into one mould.

I have no time to raise those innumerable points of detail which interest our craft teachers, but must be content with offering these few general principles for discussion. In the pamphlet called *The New Prospect in Education*, the Board of Education invited experiment with the curriculum; the

response, in my view, has been too much devoted to what the pupils can produce on a pre-arranged scheme of work, and too little to the psychological, social and cultural growth of the pupil as influenced by his school occupations."

The Place of Educational Crafts in Schools for Higher Education and their Value for the Proper Occupation of Leisure

Colonel E. A. Loftus (Headmaster of Barking Abbey School)

"When I received an invitation to address this section of the conference I was somewhat perplexed, for I am a most unpractical person. If I attempt to hang a picture on a wall it is as likely as not that I shall drop it on my own or somebody's else toes. You see, I was never educated to use my hands. Well, no, that is not quite correct, for I do remember receiving instruction at school in the art of wielding a cricket-bat! This was the only practical work which made an impression on me. The ancient school I attended had large attics. These were, in the main, not in use, though some were used as store-rooms. Once a fortnight a form in the middle school would mysteriously disappear. The school detective would probably have been able to inform you where these boys were. They were in an attic having, what was called manual instruction. This was over thirty years ago, the time when, with blushes of academic shame, a few of the old foundations were submitting to the growing urge that boys should be taught the use of simple tools. Whether I should have learned what a plane, a saw, and a chisel were, had I not attended these classes I cannot say, but I can say, quite definitely, that the only recollections I have are that we tried to make mysterious things called 'joints' and that we regarded the class as a rag. The teacher was a poor, despised individual whom we treated as a joke and whom we classed as a member of an order of society lower than that of those exalted beings glorying in the titles of Bachelors and Masters of Arts—note the word *Arts*. He seemed to represent trade as opposed to the so-called learned professions.

I very much doubt whether, in the secondary schools,

we have advanced very far along the road of a greater sensibility or greater generosity since those days. The existence of technical and trade schools and of schools of arts and crafts proves that a deficiency in our educational organisation is being met. But is proper scope being given in other places of higher education for the development of the æsthetic through the crafts? In the secondary schools, including, of course, the so-called public schools, educational crafts are still the Cinderellas of the curriculum. I am quite aware that there are a few brilliant exceptions, but, speaking generally and quite frankly, the workshop is still little more than tolerated and the instructor is still regarded as an inferior to his academic colleagues and is paid less salary than they. I think this state of affairs will be one of the strongest indictments of the more enlightened future against what I term 'modern academism.' For it will then be recognised that education in craftsmanship is an intimate and essential ingredient in that subtle mental outlook we call 'Culture.' It follows therefore that I cannot accept the present implication of this term in that it is too narrow—it savours too much of the monastic idealism which still pervades most places of higher education and, not least among these, this ancient university.

Our higher education has evolved from the classical tradition which was regarded for so many centuries as the essence of culture. Little by little the curriculum has been enlarged at the expense of the dead languages, but, among the new subjects introduced, the crafts have not, alas, been able to win the place their importance merits they should hold. It is unfortunate that few educationists have been so bold as to attack the system at its roots—to state frankly that the tree of education is rotten because the seed from which those roots sprang were themselves rotten. Most people in my position are the product of ancient schools and ancient universities and do not like to run the risk of being disloyal to them. I am one of the few who have run this risk and have had my share of abuse. One letter I received, anonymous of course, suggested that nothing good could come out of Barking, 'the sewer of the East End.' Anyhow, I have burned my boats now and can no longer claim sanctuary in the cloisters.

There have been many attempts to define the word 'education,' but none I have yet come across satisfies me.

I submit, ladies and gentlemen, that education should be a conscious process through which young people pass in

a chair, or a bed of flowers. It is this set of reactions which forms the source of the greatest happiness attainable in life, but it is also the section which receives the most scurvy treatment.

Before proceeding with my argument may I recapitulate my classification of human reactions in order to emphasise what follows.

1. *The Ethical*—man's reaction to his Deity.
2. *The Physical*—man's reactions to his bodily urges.
3. *The Communal*—man's reactions to his fellows.
4. *The Natural*—man's reactions to Nature.
5. *The Æsthetic*—man's reactions to man's art.

I contend that every human reaction to a stimulus can be placed in one or more of these classes and that there is no sixth class.

This, incidentally, is my contribution to educational theory, and I have already elaborated it in another place.

An educational system is good or bad according to the degree in which the curriculum is balanced to give adequate attention to each of these five groups.

The first four groups comprise those parts of education which, in the main, lead directly to self-preservation—they are materialistic.

But the æsthetic basis leads to knowledge which produces the greatest happiness. For the true artist, whether he be executive or critical, derives a satisfaction from his creative work, or from his appreciative powers, which is denied to him whose æsthetic sense has never been aroused or developed.

Our educational organisation is based so firmly on material considerations that there is little chance for the æsthetic side to flourish. Youth must learn things which will enable him to gain his school certificate and get a good job. We fail to realise that 'man shall not live by bread alone.' The value of work for its own sake, and apart from any question of future gain, is unstressed and, consequently, the crafts still occupy a place in the æsthetic group quite out of proportion to their value as harbingers of joy. The secondary school which allots a couple of periods a week for three years to some form of handicraft is generous. I would, at this point, ask you to consider whether the introduction of handicraft into the school certificate examination is not a retrograde step. My art master is eternally complaining of the cramping effect of the examination on his subject—and this in spite

of the fact that he has never had a failure. It is bad enough to have to prostitute Shakespeare to the vile embraces of the examination fetish, and to do this with the crafts is to kill the spirit in which they should be taught—at any rate at the school stage. The increased status, if it be regarded as such, which has resulted from this innovation, has been at the expense of the spirit.

As for the value of the crafts for the proper occupation of leisure, it would be almost ludicrous to mention this in connection with the secondary schools. I believe I am the only secondary school representative addressing this assembly and I speak with the accumulated knowledge gained in half a dozen schools. As the amount of craftwork done in these schools is so inadequate, as a general rule, how can it be expected that a universal interest will be created among the scholars. I have made inquiries among my own pupils and find that not one in fifty has any urge to make things for himself. If he has an urge it is soon suppressed. For the time demanded for home-work soon cancels it out. I have been trying to think of someone who has passed through the normal school and academic course and who was a worker in wood or metal or stone or other material in his spare time. Honestly I cannot think of anyone. You see we are not adequately educated in that this part of instruction has played no part, or too insignificant a part, in our lives. I stand before you as a self-convicted deficient in this respect, and I bewail it because I realise how much I miss in that I can neither make nor appreciate a work of art. But I don't tell everybody this, I can assure you.

To sum up, I would suggest that the only places of higher education where the arts and crafts hold their own are the technical and trade schools and the schools of arts and crafts. They are barely allowed to exist in the secondary schools and do not exist at all in the general arts and science courses at the universities. I have yet to hear of a university which will allow a craft to count towards a Degree.

From my point of view it is a sad state of affairs ; but I look forward to a time when these things will be changed. And this time is coming. I believe that the age of materialism is evolving to a finer idealism which will bring in its train a full recognition of the value of the crafts in a generous educational system.

Then will the teachers of the crafts be able to exercise a more salutary influence on taste. The result will be that our homes will not be desecrated with the tasteless furniture,

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pictures, and so-called ornaments which disgrace them to-day. The thing of beauty will be sought and will be a 'joy for ever,' while the handicraft teacher in the high schools will be allowed to graduate in his subject and will no longer be regarded as of lower status than his academic colleagues."

The Craftsman in the Senior School

A. F. Collins (Inspector and Organiser of Science and Practical Education, City of Birmingham)

"In the brief time at my disposal I propose to discuss as I see it, modern English practice in craft education, and to indicate as far as I am able its present tendencies.

First, I must remember that terms which may be common currency among English educators, and especially among those whose main interest is in craft teaching, may not carry precisely similar meanings to all my hearers. Consequently I must at the outset state clearly what I mean by 'the craftsman,' and what the term 'senior school' nowadays implies in this country.

What do I mean by the term 'craftsman'? (And here I hasten to say that of course I include the 'craftswoman'—my use of the masculine gender is purely a matter of convenience.)

A craftsman is essentially a *maker*, and, what is more, a *skilful maker*. Some of you may remember a sentence in one of H. G. Wells's books in which he speaks of the modern order having arisen, not from the doings of monarchs, soldiers or statesmen, but from the activities of 'sublimated artisans and skilful makers.' A 'skilful maker'—I cannot think of any words which better express what I believe the term 'craftsman' to mean.

Or I may refer you to that great passage in Ecclesiasticus: 'These put their trust in their hands, and in the handiwork of their craft is their prayer.' Of such are the craftsmen we would have in our schools to-day—those who know how to *make* things and who find joy in the making.

And what do we nowadays understand by the term 'senior schools'? I take it to be the 'reorganised' school foreshadowed in the Hadow Report, containing boys and girls between the ages of eleven and fourteen years. A school in which the course, save for negligible exceptions, is of

three years' duration, and to enter which the pupils have undergone no process of selection. True it is that those children considered suitable for entrance to secondary schools, and who have elected to proceed thereto, have been removed. But although the senior school may have been 'creamed' (as some persons are pleased to put it) of most of its potential candidates for further education, it has one great advantage, common to all our public elementary schools—it is entirely free from the necessity to prepare its pupils for external examinations.

Why should the craftsman be in the senior school? What shall he do there, i.e. what crafts shall he teach? How shall he teach these crafts, i.e. what shall be the spirit of his teaching?

I shall endeavour to answer very briefly each of these questions.

Why should the craftsman be in the school? That he *should* be there is the major assumption, upon which, I take it, we are all agreed or we should not be here. I shall not therefore spend long on it.

The practice of a craft as a part of the general education of senior pupils can of course be amply justified on psychological grounds—from a study of child development. I am convinced of the validity of such explanations, but they are apt to be involved and misleading unless one possesses a competence in the exposition of psychology, to which I cannot lay claim. I will therefore content myself (and you also, I venture to hope) by putting the matter into plain everyday language: *The practice of a craft (making things) affords the child educational opportunities which he can rarely gain in any appreciable measure from any other school activity.*

What are these opportunities?

First: The co-ordination of hand and eye as a known factor in mental development. (It was a weakness of the early exponents of craft education that they tended to emphasise this matter unduly, disregarding the cultural value of the crafts.

Second: The development of desirable qualities of character, e.g. foresight, patience, self-reliance, the ability to persevere at a relatively uninteresting task for the sake of the end in view, accuracy, thoroughness.

Third: The discovery of the delight that is to be found in handicraft—joy in 'cunning' in the Scriptural sense,

and pride in workmanship. (These opportunities are especially valuable to certain types of pupils to whom they offer an avenue to self-respect which may be denied to them in other subjects.)

Fourth : The growth of an appreciation of the qualities that are of most worth in common things—*the development of good taste* in the choice of articles of everyday use. It is no exaggeration to say that school crafts may make a substantial contribution to the education of the buying public of the future.

Fifth : The acquisition of technique that may be actually useful in after life in the home and elsewhere. (This has always been the main reason for the inclusion of needle-work—our oldest school craft—in the curriculum, and I see no reason why we should be ashamed to cite the possible use of a craft to the future citizen as one argument for its introduction in the school.)

Sixth : The possible effect on the pupil's use of leisure. Much might be said of this—I must be content merely to state it.

Certainly the foregoing values, and almost as certainly others, which I have not stated, are associated with the practice of school crafts, so that we may say that the craftsman's presence in the senior school is amply justified.

What shall the craftsman do in the school—what crafts shall he teach ?

It can be truly said that any traditional craft, from that of the goldsmith to that of the stonemason, has in it potentialities for education in some degree. But of course our selection must be governed by expediency, and all crafts are not equally practicable or desirable. A school craft, to be fully effective as an educational instrument, must be within the child's physical powers, and not so costly as to alienate public opinion. It must present ample variety, avoid too much tedious repetition, and be capable of development to an advanced stage, so that in it there are always new worlds for the pupil, and indeed for the teacher, to conquer.

In short, it is something which can, and should, be pursued—to use T. P. Nunn's words—'after the manner of the great masters,' so that in practising it the worker is striving 'to do fine things in a fine way.'

In current English educational practice the school crafts

which are most widely adopted fall roughly into three main groups; 'the workshop' crafts of woodwork and metalwork; the book crafts, and the textile crafts. There are a few others such as leatherwork and pottery, which are less easy to classify, and less often found in schools.

Woodwork and metalwork—the 'workshop' crafts—are so called because they can be effectively developed only in rooms specially equipped, and as a rule unsuitable for other work.

The three chief traditional uses of wood in handicraft are in the making of structures and their fittings; the making of furniture, and the making of boats—the crafts of the carpenter and joiner, the cabinet-maker, and the boatbuilder. Of these the first is seldom practicable to any great extent, though in rural areas and where school sites are extensive it may very properly find an outlet in the building of sheds, fowlhouses, and other small structures. The third—boat-building—may be, and indeed is, effectively used in a very few exceptionally situated schools, but is manifestly unsuited for general adoption. But the second—furniture making—is clearly practicable in every school workshop, and must of necessity be the principal feature in most school woodwork courses. 'Furniture,' of course, in its widest sense—from the soap-box to the chest of drawers—from the book-end to the book-case.

I have lately observed among some teachers of woodwork a curious reluctance to identify their work in any way with the ancient and honourable craft of furniture making. 'We do not' (they say) 'want our pupils to be little cabinet-makers.' But if they are to make things in wood, what shall they make as a rule but articles of household utility? And what are these but furniture? And, moreover, since they must construct articles of use in wood (or in default spend their whole time on mere technical exercises), how better can they do this than by studying the traditions and methods of the great craft of the cabinetmaker? They use its tools, the forms of which have come through centuries of experience; what possible advantage can there be in deliberately ignoring the lessons to be learned from its development and technique?

It would seem as if the craftsman, once he enters the school precincts, hastens to cast aside all the accumulated craft knowledge and skill of which he should be so proud, in order to become the indifferent pedagogue—full of words about the 'educational value' of his work but content to

debase his fine craft so as to permit banalities of design and crudities of construction which he would never tolerate as a working craftsman. Still he makes 'furniture' of sorts (for what are the key-racks, soap-boxes, and 'Oxford frames' of our earlier woodwork schemes but this?) but in the name of 'education' he refuses to admit that the aims of craft teaching (as an instrument in a *general* education) can best be attained by studying the traditional methods of the craft of the furniture maker, and by developing his work along these lines.

And so the term 'educational woodwork' became a byword among these craftsmen who still preserved the heritage of fine construction and design in cabinetmaking.

Fortunately all this is rapidly changing; more and more our teachers of woodwork are turning again from the platitudes of the pedagogue to the skill of the craftsman; are recovering their pride in craftsmanship and are rightly using it as one of the most potent forces in modern education.

Of metalwork one could say much the same. I feel, however, that up to now many of our school metalwork courses have been far too much of a mixture of many trades—the fitter, the blacksmith, the tinsmith, the metal plate worker, the silversmith, the instrument maker, the machinist—each makes his contribution to the whole, and the result is far too often an assortment of 'beginnings'—none carried as far as it might be, and some, most likely, of a very low standard.

Is it quite fair to expect the teacher, whose whole training and interests lie in the engineering side of metalwork, to dabble (for he can generally do no more) in the craft of the silversmith and to teach the making of beaten copper bowls and similar artistic metalwork? And conversely, can we fairly expect the teacher whose taste and ability lie in artistic metalwork to make a real success of activities proper to the engineer? (It is, by the way, interesting to note that as a rule the artistic metal worker seems to be more conscious of his limitations as an engineer than is the engineer of his shortcomings in artistic design. Either will assuredly do best at his own job.) I should like to see the experiment made in which, after a short preliminary course in certain basic processes common to both branches of the craft, and possibly including some simple tool-making, the metalwork course frankly restricts itself either to artistic work, or alternatively to work on engineering lines in the making of working models, with no attempt to combine the two.

Our second main group of crafts has as its focus the making

of the book. It includes a wide range of activities—from the beginnings of lettering to letterpress printing; from the most elementary of constructions in paper and card to multi-section book-binding in leather; from the simplest of 'stick-printed' decoration to the most elaborate of block-printed patterns—but all directed to one purpose—the making, preservation and embellishment of written, drawn or printed records—in a word - 'Book-crafts'!

Our third main group is that associated with textile fabrics—constructive and decorative needlework and the various forms of embroidery; weaving and rug-making, and related in principle to these, basketry and raffia work.

Such are the crafts which have found their way in to the English senior school. Of these, woodwork and metalwork are almost exclusively practised by boys, book-crafts by pupils of either sex, and the textile crafts almost entirely by girls.

Generally the boys will have an hour or two of book-crafts each week in addition to their half-day in the workshop; girls will supplement their instruction in housecraft and needlework by spending some time at book-craft, weaving or embroidery.

How shall the craftsman teach his craft?—what shall be the spirit of his approach to the work?

If I were asked what I consider to be the next notable feature of the development of craftwork in English schools during the past decade I should unhesitatingly point—not to the increased attention given to it, though this has been remarkable—but to the change in the spirit in which the crafts are taught. This change is still going on, and we have as yet by no means fully realised its possibilities.

I may best explain what I mean by saying that the modern craft teacher leads his pupils to approach their work *in the spirit of the craftsman*, whose aim is frankly to *produce* as good an article as possible. (This is, of course, the aim in the eyes of the pupil. I hope no one will believe me to be so foolish as to suggest that the production—literally the manufacture—of material things is the ultimate aim of school craftwork, either in the eye of its teachers or of the authorities which promote it.)

This aim—that of fine production, 'doing fine things in a fine way' (again to quote T. P. Nunn) seems so obvious that it is difficult to realise that for many years school craft teaching has suffered, and indeed is still suffering, from those who assume that the pupil cares about the educational value of the work. Of some of the most earnest (and incidentally

priggish) students in the later years of youth this may be true, but I am loath to believe it of the pupils in our senior schools.

I have known teachers who introduced their pupils (aged eleven) to the joys of woodwork by a disquisition upon 'Sloyd' and the aims and origins of the manual training movement. I remember, not so long ago, going into a school woodwork room in a poor district. On the wall was a large inscription: 'The model is nothing, the effect on me is everything.' (For the benefit of the uninitiated I may explain that the term 'model' was commonly applied to the exercise upon which the pupil was working.) The same pupils, on their first morning, generally at the age of eleven, in the workshop, were given as a first task the copying out in their notebooks of the following rubric:

'Where am I? I am in school, not a workshop, a school of handicraft or manual training.'

'Why am I here? I am here for three reasons. First, to train the eyes to observe and take in things. Second, to train the mind to be intelligent and to use common sense. Third, to train the hands to be useful and clever and to gain a certain amount of technical skill.'

'P.S.—The model is a means to attain these ends. *Keep this in mind.*'

In passing, I may say that the certain amount of 'technical skill' acquired by the pupils here was extremely small.

Could mistaken ideas of 'pedagogy' go further?

I would not have you think that this sort of thing is now common in our school workshops, but it so aptly illustrates my point that I make no apology for quoting it at length. For although few teachers of the crafts have gone to such extremes as this, I know that the fallacy it exemplifies has died very hard, and indeed that it still has its supporters.

They are those who object to calling their craft-rooms 'workshops' (as if they were ashamed of the recognition now given to creative work in schools)—who seem to be concerned that everything they teach shall bear the stamp of 'school' instead of coming boldly forward and saying, 'I am a craftsman and I am proud of it. My room is a workshop where genuine creative work is being done, because I believe that craftsmanship has something fine to contribute to education.'

Happily this view—of pride in craftsmanship—is gaining ground very rapidly, with remarkable results in the improvement of the standard and scope of the work done, and, what may be more important, in the esteem in which the keen and

unabashed craftsman is held by his pupils, by his colleagues, and by those, from head teachers to high administrative officials, who direct the work of the schools.

We can therefore say that the present day approach of the craft teacher to his pupils is frankly that of the craftsman anxious to make the best possible article in the best possible way. Whether so doing will 'bring in' (as the phrase went) problems in calculations, geometry and what not, from other subjects taught in the school; whether it will 'train the eyes to observe' and all the other things that handicraft is alleged to do—these are certainly not the immediate concern of the pupils. As for the teacher, while these things may be at the back of his mind, he does not self-consciously emphasise them. He is content to let his pupils share to the full his knowledge of, and his love for, his craft, secure in the conviction that only thus will their educational gain be the greatest.

An inevitable feature of this change in the spirit of craft teaching has been the recognition that some training in technique, whatever the craft, is an essential preliminary to constructive work. What is most notable is the realisation that the pupils (if of an age fit to practise a craft at all) will, if approached in the right way, be just as keen in their preliminary efforts if they are frankly exercises in technique as if they claim to be articles of use.

Nay—even more keen, for they see that these exercises—the joints and so on in woodwork, the samplers in weaving—lead to something really worth making, whereas children of senior school age are apt to be contemptuous of the trifling articles of so-called 'use,' which are all that can be produced in the early stages of any craft course.

The craftsman knows that the fundamental techniques of his craft can be mastered only if he gives careful and unequivocal instruction in the early stages; soon his pupils will rejoice because they can apply these 'mysteries' of the craft to things worth while in the making.

'To do fine things in a fine way'—this might well be the motto of every school workshop, and the craft teacher has little tolerance for those who, on the specious plea of 'self-development,' will allow the pupil to attempt what he likes, when and how he likes. The craftsman teacher knows that if he is to have a class of uninstructed pupils attempting a variety of unrelated tasks, his whole time (and more if he had it!) will be taken up with going from one to the other, doing what he can to prevent the grosser errors of technique

and the consequent discouragement of the children. He naturally prefers to teach the technique systematically with economy of time and effort. Better (says he) to do one thing really *well* than to attempt many techniques—use many materials—and to master none of them.

Also the craft teacher of to-day is becoming increasingly sceptical of those who, again on the plea of 'self-development,' would expect original design and invention from pupils who have not the wherewithal in experience and technique to design and invent in the constructive crafts, and those who would bar the use of what is, I suppose, the oldest form of relationship between teacher and learner—that in which the pupils take their part in work directed by the master. This is one of the traditional ways of learning—so the child learns in the family to take his share in domestic tasks—so the apprentice learns his job.

I am not suggesting that modern craft teaching would exclude, or even fail to give the principal place to, independent work on the part of the pupils. But our older systems attempted to exclude everything else; group or communal work was discouraged, particularly if it required the participation, or even the guidance, of the teacher. And so the pupil's opportunity of gaining experience was restricted entirely to the making of the comparatively simple articles which each could attempt individually.

I believe that it is possible to over-rate the value of purely individual work for all pupils at all times. This is not to deny the children opportunities for self-development—it is rather to recognise that self-development may be encouraged in more ways than one.

This tendency towards group work is evident, not only in craft teaching, but in other branches of school work, and the exhibition which is on view here this week contains many fine examples of the 'project method'—group work applied to a diversity of subjects.

The teachers' task in directing group work is not easy, for he has continually to use his judgment in discriminating:

(a) Between the kind of work which it is obviously a waste of time for a pupil to attempt unaided, and that which it is good for him to 'have a shot at' by himself. (But the work must not always be limited to to the latter type.)

(b) Between individual pupils—some need the timely helping hand, and others may resent it.

It would seem that in the teaching of school crafts there is a steady shifting of the emphasis upon its various values. In the early days its value in the training of the intellect was stressed, to the exclusion of all other values; now the tendency is to make more of its potentialities as a factor in social and cultural development.

In this brief address I have necessarily given you only the merest sketch of a very large subject. Much might be said to amplify the points I have raised; much more about the relationship of the crafts to other school subjects, to illustrative handwork and the graphic arts, about their historical background, and about the training and qualifications of their teachers.

But at least I hope that I have conveyed to you something of the aims and ideals of the present-day teaching of crafts in our English senior schools."

General Discussion

Discussion of the subjects read before the session was opened in a complimentary way by Mr. Vaughan Taylor, H.M.I., who stressed the view that craft instruction was more soundly encouraged by following a short course introducing disciplinary tool operations with simple forms of construction, thus laying sound foundations upon which to develop the craft skill and technique required for making useful domestic or technical articles. He reminded his hearers that the real craftsman was not a man of words, and did not often talk of his ability, but he held a firmly optimistic outlook that such training as now suggested will result in a revivifying of the traditional crafts which demands that the thing made shall stand the test: Is it satisfactory? is it useful? is it suitable for purpose and made from right materials? Then it is beautiful!

Mr. Hervey (India) and Miss Hoover (New York), with other home and overseas speakers contributed to the discussion.

Mr. A. J. Brice (President of the Institute and College of Handicraft) proposed a resolution, which was unanimously adopted, and forwarded to the Resolutions Committee for unification. The unified resolution was duly submitted to the final Delegate Assembly and adopted:

"That this Delegate Assembly of the W.F.E.A. desires to draw the attention of the Departments and

Ministries of Education of all countries to the urgent need for securing at every stage of school life, up to and including the university stage, a fuller appreciation of the cultural significance of the arts and crafts and the importance of their practice in education. Facilities should be provided for the continuance of creative craft work throughout the school career."

Through the courteous invitation and welcome of Mr. W. A. Robertson, the Director of the Forest Products Research Laboratory, a branch of the Industrial and Scientific Research Department, a party from the crafts section went by private coach and cars on Tuesday afternoon to Princes Risborough. The party was divided into small companies and conducted over the different sections of the work carried on at the station. The advantage of seeing the modern methods of research and investigation applied to the problems arising from the use of timber and timber products, including the introduction of new timbers from overseas; the chemistry, physics and mechanics of timbers and their proper utilisation; the value of applied entomology in dealing with destructive timber pests, the seasoning and preserving of timbers, and the designing of efficient mechanical tools for wood-working, gave the younger members of the party as well as the experienced craftsman teacher new lines for thought and work which were of incalculable value in their future teaching activities. The party gave appreciative thanks to the officers of the Laboratory.

SECOND SESSION, WEDNESDAY, 14TH AUGUST,

9.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

The Place of Educational Crafts in Secondary and Grammar Schools

Principal W. Jones (Blackpool Technical College)

"I approach my subject with some diffidence, because there is a very great difference between the place which educational crafts have won in the secondary and grammar schools, and the place which, in my opinion, they ought to hold.

There are varying conditions in the many secondary and grammar schools, but the scholarship in all of them is similar, and I propose to consider these two titles as synonymous, to think definitely of those schools which take a place in the educational ladder by accepting the children of the junior elementary schools on the results of the annual examinations for all who have attained the age of eleven plus, and to examine the possibilities they have for such a ratio of workshop to classroom that the practical and artistic activities of the school may be increased. In some of the larger schools better facilities are now offered, but in general, the selection of subjects for the curriculum follows closely the requirements of the various examining bodies. The tardy recognition of handicraft and art as subjects for school certificate and matriculation respectively seemed to be, in 1925, a step in the right direction, but when we come to take stock of the past thirty years in the secondary schools, I think we may find that those schools missed a golden opportunity of developing as a new and distinct type, with a much wider appeal, and serving a greater variety of interests than the older grammar schools with which they are conforming. More attention could have been given to the place of craft work in a liberal education, craftwork which gives not only the intelligent vision necessary for educated citizenship, but also the training of faculties which are more generally related to the future requirements of so many of our pupils in the workshop of life.

There has been a wave of enthusiasm (especially in the primary schools) for the greater use of practical methods, on psychological grounds; there has been very freely presented to us a somewhat new principle called education for leisure; there is a growing desire to be taught the appreciation of the fine arts; there has been a stimulating revival of taste in home decoration (assisted by excellent publicity work by the trades); and a new influence in home life through the medium of the 'wireless.' Even toyland is extending its influence over our young folk. We have to-day building, engineering, wireless and aircraft propositions for the boys as complete as are the dolls and their requirements for the girls. What a great contribution to their happiness the girls have had for generations in this close association with their mothers in the practice and appreciation of the domestic arts and crafts, and that advantage they hold throughout the school life, for needlework, weaving, dress-making and millinery, cookery and confectionery are all not

only acceptable to the girls themselves, but fully recognised as necessary.

Not so much in degree are the boys favoured. They have been directed along a course of competitive scholarship from a very early age (often long before their examination at eleven plus for scholarships), and in that course 'outside' subjects have not found a place. After a successful entry to the secondary school at the age of ten if they are fee payers, eleven if they have won 'free places,' they are very quickly graded into 'A' forms and 'B' forms, and after three short years are consciously heading for the school certificate examination, whence, if successful, they will be carried along in one of three or more 'streams': modern studies, economics, science, engineering, or commerce, for greater specialisation. The brightest and best of the young folk (in terms of 'examination marks') are in the 'A' forms, the second best are in the 'B' forms, the third are in 'C' forms, and in the 'C' category they remain, where it is often considered that the possession of 'manual' dexterity is a compensation for lack of intellectual ability which maintains other boys in the 'A' forms. I invite you to cast back your thoughts to the Golden Age of the High Renaissance in Italy, and think of the versatility, business acumen, and scholarship of the artist craftsmen who made Italy of that day so famous. Such a production of personalities could not have come from 'C' or third-class intellects, and will not come to us with our present outlook. Where is the craft teacher who has not found that his best boys are just those who will be chosen at a very early stage for concentrated work upon the matriculation course?

I sympathise with the pupils of the secondary school, for to 'make good' they must 'matriculate,' and their timetable is loaded accordingly, so too the homework time-table, and notwithstanding whatever delight and contentment they found in the workshops of the school (delight obtained perhaps in no other way) they must pass on. I do not mean that they are unhappy. On the contrary, the romance of school life for them is at its height; they have the natural pride of the selected, perhaps select; they have an altogether new orientation; they have new companionships; they are surrounded by a staff of experts and specialists; they have generously equipped playing fields, and real games; house activities, school societies, summer camps, even summer cruises; all contributing to an enthusiasm which culminates in a wholesome desire to do well, to pass the matricula-

tion examination, and perhaps win a so-called 'superior' job.

So it is that the 'A' forms may be withdrawn from the craft rooms after the third year; similarly with the 'B' forms; the 'C' forms may continue into the Fifth by virtue of including handicraft among the subjects for the impending school certificate examination. I doubt whether a school system, centred upon school certificate and matriculation in its present exalted form, is not blinding us to the possibilities of a fuller measure of self-expression in those early years. Herein lies a serious problem for the committee of the careers society of the school.

We have then at least three aspects of our problem :

Education for its own sake ;

Education for leisure ;

Education for examination.

Let us look at the value of the teaching in educational craftwork as a contribution to practical method in general, to the more complete co-ordination of brain and hand and eye, to 'learning by doing.' Then let us examine its scope in the education of our adolescents for coming leisure, and finally its purpose in the scheme for the school certificate examination.

With respect to the first of these, it would be presumption on my part to attempt to put before such a body of experts all that craftsmanship stands for in the alembic of man. In that grand poem with which the book of Genesis begins, we read how :

God shaped the earth,
And gave it light,
And created every living thing,
. . . and saw that it was good.

And as surely as he implanted in man the image of his Maker, the desire to create, to create withal beautiful things. Down through the ages a glorious harvest of skill has been gathered to us by the builders and artificers of the nations, advancing through the field of adventure and discovery, to creative work. It is not necessary to ask which way 'culture' lies, for there is the essence of all culture in any one thing that is finely conceived and nobly carried out. So there is a great past, and a real garden of high endeavour and achievement, and as Kipling says of another garden :

'The Glory of the Garden lies in more than meets the eye,
For the Glory of the Garden glorifieth everyone.'

I see then no reason to apologise for our claim to some kind

of parity in school subjects to-day. Indeed, are we doing our share in our own generation to keep alive the creative impulse, especially when thousands of our workers are losing their power in face of the monotonous mass production in which they are engaged. We cannot be considering this seriously by our present only passing interest in craftsmanship, whereby the best pupils are withdrawn at an early age, when whole forms are presented, thirty in number, for weekly periods as low as one and a quarter hours. I am sure the senior schools will quickly outstrip the secondary schools in the work unless we increase this provision. When I remember that the whole of the junior elementary school population has been sifted to secure the early quota of pupils given to the secondary schools, I cannot help thinking what a fine thing it would be if some or all of the keener intellect of the 'A' and 'B' forms could be directed to the pursuit of those structural arts that contribute so materially, and morally, to our daily needs in our cities and towns, our homes, and in the country-side. After examination of children at the age of eleven, why assume that the *first* selection, the children transferred to the grammar schools, are all academically inclined; the *second* selection, those transferred to the central schools, are all, shall I say, commercially inclined, while the large remainder, those sent to the senior schools, are destined for the various jobs of the work-a-day world? To what extent are we restricting our recruitment of skilled workers for industry to our 'third best'? Are we not in danger of establishing, or maintaining, that hierarchy among school subjects whereby the practice of a craft takes a subordinate place in our estimation? Here I must challenge that separation of heads and hands, whereby workmen are looked upon as so many 'hands,' as if their heads and their souls were of no account. Actually, while I was thinking how to approach this subject, I happened to glance at an English paper set for matriculation candidates. It had the usual question: 'Select one of the following subjects and write two or three pages on it.' No. 5 on the list of subjects read thus: 'Do you prefer to work with your head or your hands?' Why not a quotation from those lovely lines by John Keats: 'A thing of beauty is a joy for ever'? Set them to write two or three pages on that: their philosophy will be the deeper for it, and their art the higher. So, too, only a few days ago a parent, proud of his son's success, ended his eulogy with these words: 'And now he will never have to take off his coat.'

Surely *conscious* muscular control of a high order implies mental and moral control and the co-ordination of brain and hand and eye. Man has been the tool-maker through the ages, but with all his ingenuity he has not made the tool that excels the hand. How best can we train this hand (dexterity is an essential quality for a hundred occupations, but the sense of power that this skill gives a man is a great mental force within him); and again, how can we better develop the power of observation and of memory? Or yet again, that taste and discrimination which mark the character of the educated man? We are told that a man's proportion of sense depends upon his sense of proportion. Let us begin then with our pupils in the practice rooms below, where subjectively and objectively they will comprehend in fullest measure the great laws of Proportion, of Harmony and of Rhythm; while outside they will look about them and enjoy the eternal fitness of structure related to use, and material to purpose, in *their* everyday lives. In that alone there is a profound philosophy awaiting them.

How then can we gain a better place for this part of our educational work, or what extra provision can we make? It is possible to pair craft-work with some other subject to allow of 'half-forms' where the numbers are large. Drawing and craftwork could be so paired, with the greatest possible gain to each in more complete correlation. In a school of four hundred this would make necessary the appointment of two art masters instead of one, and two artist craftsmen instead of one, but with resulting conditions which would dispel the isolation of the single teacher in charge of a Cinderella subject, whose colleagues may now consider his subject of inferior importance, and in some way contribute to the indifference displayed to this 'work of the hands.'

In regard to our second aspect, the time is coming quickly when we shall have to adjust our social conditions more equitably. To each and all will come more leisure, some welcome, some forced. Think of the grand total of unskilled labour, and with it this prospect of forced leisure. We must provide such a liberal education during school life that our young people will be able to develop for themselves a philosophy of life in harmony with their everyday needs in a new age. They cannot do this fully if they are repressing this impulse that is part of their nature, the impulse to build, to make. In the workshops of the school they can acquire an appreciation of art in everyday things, an appreciation of the beauties of finished craftsmanship, and a high

regard for constructive work and for the skill of our craft workers, and for wanton destruction only horror and loathing, which will induce a simple and effective morality which might conceivably end the breaking, burning, and killing, even of war itself. Nor will they be so often found killing time, but rather using fleeting hours to develop body and mind in producing each for himself something worthy of his self-respect. Much of our progress in the next twenty-five years will depend upon having enough people who have acquired this outlook. Let us do all we can in the impressionable years at school to prepare the way for, perhaps, our own renaissance.

We are told that about seven per cent. of the boys and four per cent. of the girls attending our secondary schools proceed to universities, yet the crowded curriculum is substantially the same for all, for it is determined very largely by the schedules and syllabuses drawn up by the University Examining Boards, whose selection of subjects is again determined by the needs of the universities. If this greater need, which I have tried to define, were really recognised, the present curriculum would be quickly overhauled, and ways and means provided for five or six weekly periods up to sixteen years of age, with the conditions suggested above. The time is ripe for the complete review of the inter-relationship of the many subjects of the curriculum, independently of the zealous demands of each master for his own subject. Why should not five subjects be offered for matriculation, instead of seven or eight as so often at present (four are considered enough in Scotland)? Surely the quality of a student can be assessed by such means. Then out of thirty-five periods per week, assuming the present provision of five periods weekly for subjects of examination, there would remain ten periods for the pursuit of those studies which by their nature have longer aims and more lasting influence.

Thus the secondary school pupil would have scope for a variety of craftwork, and adequate time to acquire the degree of skill necessary for satisfaction in the exercise of any craft. and should he wander back into industry, as many do, he would find therein a way of escape from the soul-destroying conditions of modern mass-production. But what variety of work is possible while the handicraft of the school is anchored to the syllabus of the first school examination in its present form?

In considering this, the third aspect of our subject, education for examination, we must weigh the advantages of

exemption for subjects that do not lend themselves readily to examination procedure, and not be content, as so often urged, because the recognition of two sections of the work for a school certificate award has brought with it increased equipment, and an occasional fifth form. If we propose to take up examination work seriously, then the provision must be made for equality with other school certificate or matriculation subjects, similar teaching periods, and an equal number of masters. There should be a place at the top so high that the proper pace would be set for craftwork throughout the school. This would require the revision of the whole time-table.

In a 'three-stream' school, or a 'four-stream' school, however, the practice will, I fear, continue, that from as early as the third form, pupils will be directed along express routes to the various faculties represented at the universities, while only pupils remaining outside these streams will be considered for craftwork, and then only for the prospect of gleaning a 'credit' pass in a subject of Group IV. The University of Wales some time ago decided to recognise courses in art and crafts for the degree of B.A., and Aberystwyth College was the first to offer a course. With such a prospect it might be possible to arrange, on exactly parallel lines, a fifth 'stream' of specialisation for those pupils who wish to pursue the study of art and crafts, and the teacher thus qualified would have unquestioned status, and his department full recognition, in the grammar schools. All this would certainly entail the further provision already mentioned, but considering the present academic bias of the grammar schools, there is a danger that the fundamental and more general purpose of educational crafts would be lost to sight in a specialised course, other 'streams' being left entirely without any provision for craft-work. We must not forget that educational craft-work is a subject of universal interest and should be as constant a part of the curriculum for every pupil throughout the school life, as is physical training for the complete body, or the use of our mother tongue for our daily intercourse.

A longer school life in the practice of the workshops, where inspiration, imagination, and initiative come, as perhaps in no other way, may entail the building of a new type of secondary school, in which there will be a larger place not only in the building plans, but in the curriculum, for educational craftwork throughout the junior and senior forms. Craft rooms could then be thrown open to the sixth

form, or to a school art and crafts society, forming a new cultural centre, which would take a large place in the activities of all the various school societies, and contribute in the meantime in its own, shall I say inimitable way, to the general culture of the school, and ultimately to that of the larger school into which we send our members—the school of life. There let us hope they will understand in fuller measure not only

‘The Science of Life, but The Art of Living.’

The Value of Arts and Crafts in Junior Instruction Centres

A. V. Robinson (Principal, Middlesbrough Junior Instruction Centre)

“ My task in introducing a short address on the value of arts and crafts in junior instruction centres is probably a little more difficult than that of my colleagues who have so ably spoken to you on educational crafts in some of the better known departments of our State educational system. When we speak of post-primary schools we immediately know the type of school, but when speaking of junior instruction centres, it is found that a number of people are not already conversant with such educational institutions. I am sure, Mr. Chairman, those ladies and gentlemen present here this morning who are already conversant with J.I.C.’s will forgive me for my brief explanation of their provision.

Junior instruction centres were of a temporary nature until July, 1934. Now, by Act of Parliament, all boys and girls who are between the school-leaving age and eighteen years, and who are unemployed, are obliged to attend a course of instruction at a J.I.C. until they have obtained employment. There are certain exemptions from attending such a course which, I am sure, need not be explained here.

It does not need much concentration to imagine an unemployed adolescent out in the world which has no place for him. Such a misfortune could not have happened at a more difficult period in life than that of adolescence. In many cases, deterioration has been going on physically, mentally and morally since leaving school. Conditions of life under which many unemployed adolescents are obliged

to live have made a considerable contribution to their plight. All too often, the billiard room, the gambling groups and other undesirable activities are sought. It is regrettable to find that in some cases enforced idleness has brought the unemployed adolescent to the juvenile court. Such unfortunate occurrences are substantiated by quoting a statement taken from the Carnegie Trust Report, which reads :

‘The Superintendents of the Wolverhampton and Middlesbrough Junior Instruction Centres have both been commended by their Chief Constables upon the good effect of their Centres. During one period the boys from South Bank were not compelled to attend the Middlesbrough J.I.C. and several got into trouble with the Police, but this stopped when attendance was resumed.’

It is obvious that if we are intent upon putting these things right, a curriculum in a J.I.C. must be extremely interesting. A year or two before a boy's school education has terminated he is planning just what he wants to be and what he intends to do in the ‘world of work.’ When he is required to return to a course of instruction, he immediately associates such a place with school activity and does not want a second helping of the three R's. Undoubtedly many an ex-school boy has forgotten much of his academic knowledge, but this can be remedied by tactful method. It has been found through experience that the artist's brush, the craftsman's plane, and the fitter's file are far cheaper than a sheet of paper and a cheap school pen.

The question has been asked many times whether it is the aim of a J.I.C. curriculum to teach a trade or just to keep idle hands out of further mischief.

It will be realised that the personnel of a junior instruction centre is continually changing. This rules out the aim of teaching a trade, had such an aim been a desirable one.

It is amazing to see the change take place in lads who have been unemployed for a considerable time after they have spent even a short time following some interesting art or craft. The collar and tie takes the place of the muffler, the go-as-you-please attitude is supplanted by a sprightly step, hands have found a better place than being thrust in their pockets. They are bright, they are clean, they are alert, quite a contrast to the lads they once were who thought no one wanted them and everybody was their enemies. Nowhere will you find more evidence of the creative spirit, and the

revealing of hitherto undiscovered talent, which is amazing. A delightful scene comes before me while I am addressing you of four lads deeply interested in the making of an inlaid and veneered gramophone cabinet. This piece of work is intended for a town's exhibition, which makes their job even more interesting to them. Not one of them has had a chance to take up a course in arts and crafts. The occupations they have been compelled to follow have been a great contrast to that of a craftsman. One has earned a poor living delivering milk; a second has had to be content in delivering parcels; the third lad has spent most of his time since leaving school on a farm, and the fourth has been at the blacksmith's anvil endeavouring to do the work of a blacksmith's striker.

If time would permit a panorama of really happy lads could be passed before you all, keenly engaged shaping wood, metal, leather, or willows, inwardly rejoicing at the discovery of their usefulness and watching with delight a beautifully-made article taking shape at the command of their own fingers.

It has been my pleasure (and might I add my task?) to find an interest for at least 14,000 lads between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years. It is unnecessary for me to explain in psychological terms the numerous ways in which the majority of the 14,000 lads have improved. But it is not only the normal lad who has derived great benefit from such activity. We have the mental deficient to consider; the physical defective to deal with; and the lads who have already been unfortunate enough to get themselves into the hands of the police, to reform.

I have in mind a most interesting case which shows how activity in arts and crafts brought about a cure where medical treatment had so far failed. This lad was over the age of sixteen years. He had suffered considerably from St. Vitus' Dance. He had a slight attack of paralysis down the right side. His physique was fairly good, but his mental age was that of a normal boy of nine years. To make things more complex, he was an only child and the parents had unconsciously retarded his progress rather than assisted it. He was a big lad who loved to play with little boys and was very much afraid of lads his own size and age. His parents complained that if he were sent for two articles he would forget one. If he were asked to attend to the fire, the dining-room carpet received the coal and not the dull red cinders. They were disgusted because he could not tie his own shoe laces



AT HAMPTON COURT

or fasten a button. In short, they had as much to do for him as they had when he was an infant. 'Could I do anything for him?' was the mild request. There was no doubt that if the lad were handled carefully and sympathetically his unfortunate condition could be improved considerably. It was a task, but an interesting one. With individual attention and a sensible plan of campaign success was achieved. First of all, he was happy to fill the surface of a piece of timber with small nails, but not very happy when his fingers received blows instead of the nails. Step by step he began to improve. The mixture which was being administered was a little carving, a little weaving, a little basket-work, a little woodwork, a little art, an occasional day in the gymnasium and then back again in the craft rooms. At the end of this lad's treatment he was the senior prefect of the centre. He no longer was like a leaf on a tree. He no longer played with little boys but was happy to put the gloves on in the gym. with the biggest lads in attendance. His memory had improved. To sum up, his mental age had progressed beyond that of nine years. He left the centre a normal lad and is now holding a good position in the industrial north. So much which proves conclusively the value of arts and crafts for the physical defective; but there is the recalcitrant to consider, the lad whose only interest lies in breaking the law. I well know that home environment and undesirable company is responsible for much of our juvenile crime to-day, but it must be admitted that an interesting hobby and someone interested in the lad will do much to lighten the load of the presiding magistrate.

Take for example the case of a lad, much taller and much more robust than myself, who would never look you straight in the eyes but always had his eyes cast to the ground, a muffler carelessly tied round his neck and hands thrust in his pockets. The only answer you got from him when he was spoken to was a grunt. He was insolent, he was abusive. In short, a most difficult case. He did not want to do anything and resented the idea of following a course of instruction. He gave a lot of trouble to the tutors at the beginning of his training, but gradually he began to show a little interest in what he was given to do. Finally he became most contented. This lad made great progress in the crafts and instead of spending his leisure time in an undesirable way he has taken up handicrafts as a hobby.

We have read that J.I.C.'s are merely waiting-rooms for the convenience of employers. I know, Mr. Chairman, a

definite course of instruction is far better than an intermittent one, but until such an opportunity comes along, surely 'half a loaf' is better than none at all. You will always have division of opinion, but my experience is that the employer of labour has now begun to stipulate that any girl or boy that he or she might employ must have attended a J.I.C. It is common knowledge, Mr. Chairman, that an adolescent whose hands and mind have been actively engaged during periods of enforced idleness will make a far better servant to the employer.

Many of my listeners will no doubt be ready to ask the question: 'What is the method of discipline in such an educational institution?'

When junior instruction centres were first begun, then known by the name of unemployment schools, which were soon christened 'Dole Schools,' it was never anticipated that unemployment amongst adolescents would stay with us so long. Authorities were very reluctant to spend much money on tools and apparatus for craft work. The major part of the time table was taken up with academic subjects and sports.

It was my experience to find that many unemployed adolescents thought it bad enough to be compelled to attend a course of instruction, but to begin what they expected to be school work all over again was very much resented. I leave it to you to imagine what a difficult task it was to maintain a good standard of discipline without resorting to some measure of corporal punishment. This was in many cases a dangerous method to think about. I ask you what would you do with a strong, robust lad much taller than yourself who, in anything but drawing-room language, asked you when he was given a task to do, who the H—— you were?

Such obstacles cleared away when arts and crafts came to occupy two-thirds of the time-table and academics and physical training the other third. Interest an adolescent and your difficulties in discipline vanish.

So far, most of my address has been given to the unemployed lad and little has been said about the unemployed girl. One will expect to find housecraft, needlework and physical training included in the curriculum. Speaking from experience, arts and crafts must also be given a prominence in the curriculum. It must not be forgotten that the fair sex are able and just as competent to do good work with the craftsman's tools and gain an equal amount of benefit from such activity as the stronger sex are. It has been my

pleasure, as part of my social work, to conduct a voluntary class of girls in handiercrafts. Most of these girls belonged to a poor locality and needed something more interesting than paint and powder and seeking interest in walking the main street. In time they became very keen indeed and their view of life and how leisure time could be spent was changed considerably. To see a class of adolescent girls planing, sawing, paring, staining and polishing, would give anyone much delight. The variety of articles made and the high standard of craftsmanship which was achieved, and finally the change which was effected in the disposition and character of the girls, are sufficient to prove the great value of arts and crafts for adolescent girls besides boys. Even when a mixed class was tried there was no evidence of lack of interest in the work on the part of the girls, but it resulted in further efficiency.

It is not always possible to see the result of one's labours, especially in the teaching profession. Our pupils' and students pass through our hands into the world of work. Some do remember us and others don't. No boy or girl can remain in a junior instruction centre after he or she has attained the age of eighteen years. A number of them are not always fortunate enough to find employment, so it means enforced idleness again unless their activity in the centre has achieved its aim. It is very gratifying to have visits from old students, seeking advice about the best kind of timber that should be used to construct an article of furniture for the home. Perhaps they need some guidance regarding design and construction or the best place to purchase some tools and the right kind to get.

There is certainly a great variety in the number of inquiries. Lads come along with questions regarding a dog kennel or a home for their rabbits, but there is sufficient evidence to show that the majority of them are not going to be satisfied with cheap, shoddy, commercial articles in their homes, but are anxious to say to their friends: 'See that Queen Anne sideboard? I made that. What do you think of it?' Surely if their training in arts and crafts in a junior instruction centre has achieved nothing more than give them a wholesome interest during periods of leisure, it has done good work. I am looking forward to the day when our Education Department provides tuition in arts and crafts not only for the adolescent and youth but also for men and women. I am sure if such courses were available for the rank and file, conducted on sensible lines, they

would provide an admirable basis for institutes of training for leisure.

It is common knowledge that in the very near future less of our lives will be spent at work and more of our time in leisure. Surely, in the interests of a great nation, is this not the right method to preserve the high standard of the British citizen ? ”

General Discussion

The officially shortened period of all sessions on Wednesday morning, owing to the visit to Hampton Court Palace, precluded full consideration, but after the papers had been read, Mr. A. G. Phillips (Ex-President, Institute and College of Handicraft) opened the discussion with an excellent contribution on the value of the teaching of technique and its benefit upon subsequent progress.

Mr. A. E. Hill (N.U.T. Advisory Committee of Handicraft Teachers) proposed that the W.F.E.A. should call the attention of L.E.A.'s to the neglect of the strong recommendations of the recent reports of commissions, especially in secondary schools. He also claimed that so long as the examination systems prevailed it was only fair to the pupil who excelled in crafts that such ability should be assessed on a scale of equal merit to that accorded to academic subjects.

Mr. W. McCulloch (I.A.A.M.) welcomed the opportunity of promising the full support of his association to demand a fuller recognition of the value and importance of the traditional arts and crafts in secondary school programmes and examinations. He also urged the interested parties to explore the possibilities of securing the support of parents' organisations.

THIRD SESSION—THURSDAY, 15TH AUGUST,
9.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

The Place of Crafts in Public Schools

A. W. Sheath (Berkhamsted School)

“ By one of those strange chances which sometimes come in a lifetime, it was the good fortune of the reader of this

paper to become the first teacher of crafts at Berkhamsted School after four years in the fields of war had left him sufficiently unsettled as to the future, but which such a pioneering task gave a magnetic pull. Handicrafts is now a thriving, healthy subject taught in well-equipped shops with mechanical aids, where once only hand work was possible and was regarded as a spare time amusement by otherwise unemployed boarders.

Berkhamsted has a sixteenth-century foundation, and in such schools tradition is so firmly established that new ideas must take time to surmount the barrier of custom. When the new ideas have proved their worth they will be fully accepted and after such acceptance they may become a pride of possession. The introduction of systematic handicraft was due to the enthusiasm of the art master, who associated it with drawing and allied subjects, and removing the workshop from the untrained carpenter who used to keep an eye on boys who desired to do a little carpentry in leisure moments, which their parents often found an expensive extra.

One must admire the vision and courage of headmasters who, risking popularity with old boy organisations, and even governing bodies, are prepared to break through the conservative tradition surrounding the school activities.

Craft work requires teacher guidance from adequately trained and qualified teachers on a parity with other subjects. It is no idle prophecy to here state that in the near future more handicraft teachers will be required in our public schools, and they must be prepared and willing to give themselves to the full service that such schools demand from their staffs.

The debatable ground of the examination of handicraft on the lines of the schools certificate is not a subject for our consideration at the moment, but the value of the work to a student who is pronounced unsuitable for the normal academic subjects, and who is psychologically affected by such a wrongful method of measuring his capabilities, is truly wonderful. To watch the steady regaining of self-respect and confidence in a boy who has been so degraded, as he takes the pleasure and satisfaction in seeing something grow as a result of his own handiwork into an article of utility and beauty, is a proof of the value of the work. The importance of his regaining a lost morale assumes especial concern for those teaching adolescent boys and the boys themselves.

In a public school the terms are short and all the teaching is intensive. This is exacting on the adolescent, and along with the demands of various activities associated with the corporate life of the school, it produces a distinct trial of endurance. Some drop out of the race ; few escape without some degree of defeat, but the workshop, giving a change of interest and environment which is free from the unpleasant associations of the classroom troubles, enables self-confidence to be recaptured. The workshop can become a place for valuable physical relaxation from the special mental efforts demanded from fifth and sixth form boys preparing for examinations where the competition is fierce. A visitor to Berkhamsted would be surprised at the originality in conception, design and construction of much of the work done voluntarily by students who have attained to these higher forms and find the workshop more attractive than the playing fields.

The public school boy has many opportunities over the normal school boy, in travel, longer holidays, greater opportunities of visiting storehouses of treasures in our own and in other lands, and here handicraft is fulfilling a distinct cultural value for him so that he can evaluate the work of craftsmen of the past, a side which has been neglected in the former schemes of education, which have been too academic and one-sided. The curriculum which embraces handicraft gives the boy a truly human interest which enables him to live a more natural life and to satisfy his normal desires of knowing how things are made. Handicraft may have a desirable sociological influence, through encouraging the association of those mutually interested in the making of things, and the recognition that the skill of the manual worker has been an indispensable factor in the progress of civilisation. Mutual understanding and sympathy between classes is still far from perfect, but more tolerant views must inevitably prevail.

The teaching of handicrafts has been formulated in our normal elementary and secondary schools and the public school has to adopt their system and method, giving a wholesome contrast to the copying of the public school system with games and sports, and the adoption of the house system in the normal schools of the nation. The public school appraising the value of the subject consents to imitate where it has been accustomed itself to be the pattern."

Practical Education and Cultural Studies

E. Healey (Principal, Spurley Hey Central School, Rotherham)

"An old lady who attended a performance of Shakespeare's 'Hamlet' for the first time was disappointed. She said that the play was all right but it contained too many quotations. That is the danger which besets one who is asked to speak to a topic like the present.

One is tempted to quote from Ruskin and Morris; from Froebel and Montessori; from Dewey; from Sanderson of Oundle; from Dr. Jacks and from Dr. Ballard. A noble band of pioneers in practical educations have expressed themselves in chosen phrase in the conviction that practical education occupies a unique place in the cultural development of the child.

Is there need then for further discussion? Do we need to do anything more than draw once again the attention of our fellows to their message? Their work has certainly proved fruitful in that the majority of our pupils in the schools are afforded opportunities for practical education.

The need, however, is still there and it lies in the fact that a message needs reinterpretation for its age. Enthusiasts for craft education are not prepared to sing the *Nunc Dimittis* in respect of the allotment of $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours per week of school time for part of the student's school course. We do not regard this as anything more than the commencement of our efforts. Not only do we wish to see more time devoted to craft work in our schools, our universities, our adult education scheme, but we are also of the opinion that when the spirit and ideals of educational craft-work filter through to the more academic subjects, then education as a whole will be the better for it. For it is our conviction that practical education is more truly grounded in sound psychology, and that its aims are more truly cultural than is the case with the more academic subjects of the school that emboldens us to restate our case.

Man often does the right things for the wrong reasons. Practical education has often been urged and adopted for other than sound educational reasons. Behind its advocacy there has lingered in the minds of many of its advocates the feeling that it would provide good training for a boy who is going into industry as a skilled artisan. It has been held

to be excellent as a relaxation from the sterner tasks in school life; it has been held to be good for backward boys, or therapeutically valuable for delinquents. It is held to be a good thing that boys should make useful articles for the school or for the home. It has been held to be good for hand and eye co-ordination or for its disciplinary power in conditioning new reflexes. It may be all these, and none of them need be educational in the least.

The craft teacher holds that practical education owes its place in the educational scheme because of the unique and indispensable contribution it has to offer in the education of the whole man. It comes not as a mere additional subject in the curriculum but in response to an awareness of new educational values. Dewey, Sanderson, Ballard and Dr. Jacks have been the pioneer advocates of the new values. Briefly then, the advocacy of practical education rests on the basis that it imparts an essential culture which no other branch of school activities can provide.

For too long has culture been regarded as synonymous with the culture of intellect. Traditional education in England in the Latin language and the mother tongue has been taken as the model of all cultural studies, and the secondary curriculum of to-day has been inspired by the old grammar schools. In its origin, this system had the very practical end of training the learned clerk, and what was useful if not vocational for the life of the clerk had to suffice for the farmer. When the classical programme of education was challenged on the grounds of its incapacity to fit its subjects for life; when it was challenged on grounds of content value, it defended itself on the grounds of its value as formal training. When formal training was discredited by the educational psychologist, the classicists were urged to discover the truly educational reasons why they should persist in the prescription of the languages as a medium through which culture can be transmitted. For truth to say, the study of the Latin tongue over a five year secondary course has often stopped short of culture. There is nothing cultural in the rote memorising of paradigms, nor in the merely scientific aspects of grammar and etymology. Few students won through—certainly in the modern secondary school—to a first hand acquaintance with the significant writings of the master minds of Greece and Rome. Much of what was assumed to be a cultural product of the course was in fact a by-product in that it was a personal culture transmitted from the cultured teacher to receptive pupils.

Professor A. N. Whitehead tells us in a recent book nevertheless : ' It is not so much that the achievements of a liberal education have been worsened ; their pretensions have only been found out.' When we have the courage to rid ourselves of fetiches there will probably be less classical education in our schools, and this will be of better quality. We may then count the result as a real gain for culture.

Speaking more generally of the academic curriculum, the charge has been made in recent years that the schools are suffering from a crowded programme of too many subjects. The old grammar school with its two subject plan did not suffer from this, and it imparted a recognisable culture. A rushed curriculum is educationally bad : its results are sterilised by the ' fact and information ' ideal with which it is haggard, an ideal which one hoped that Dickens had slain in his ' Hard Times.' Our particular indictment of the ' fact and information ' trend in the crowded bill lies in the belief that it results in a gross educational over-emphasis of the ' knowing ' side of the boy. Sanderson's genius lay in the observation that even the ' knowing ' side must be approached through practical activities if the knowledge is to be anything significant to the child and not a mass of sterile ideas. He remarked, ' Children come to school to *do* not to *learn*.'

This is, to my mind, rather the over-statement of a zealous propagandist than a statement of truth. Learning I still regard as the end of school activity, but more of this learning must be learning through practical activities. There is, moreover, a form of learning, motor learning, which has a place of its own, and I shall refer to this later.

The True End of Education is Culture

We are not to mistake for culture the adoption of the airs and graces and modes of speech of any particular social class ; nor on the more serious side can we be satisfied with a culture which connotes passivity and aloofness from life together with the possession of stores of pedantic learning whose only outcome is shown in destructive criticism. Nor is the culture of the flower whose merit is to be seen and admired a guide to human culture. For the culture of man demands that he, the repository of culture acquired by the race, shall be an agent for the transmission of that culture improved, if God wills, to the race and the future. Culture then implies activity in man. It involves the knowledge and selection of the best that has been thought, written or achieved

by man, and these values may be in large part transmitted through our schools.

The culture of the mind implies also the culture of each of the three great psychological aspects of mentality—knowing, feeling and action. For the mind is the medium by which man is brought into knowing, feeling and reactive relations with his world, or into a complex relationship in which all three sides are implied. We have emphasised or rather over-emphasised the culture of knowing in school. The culture of knowing is inadequate without the culture of feeling and the culture of action has been the most neglected of all in educational theory and practice.

The culture of knowledge is safeguarded by the mathematical and scientific curriculum, and by the scientific aspects of linguistic study.

Emotional culture may be best achieved through the medium of the literary curriculum through the drama, and through the æsthetic training imparted in the art lesson.

The culture of practice is achieved through the opportunities afforded in the craft lesson for the building up of skills in the skill-hungry pupil.

What has Handicraft to do with Culture?

Handicraft we affirm supplies a unique and indispensable culture of its own. It is quite as cultural as any other subject in the curriculum—as, for example, classics or literature. The pupil who receives no training in respect of his skilled capacities is, as Plato would have described him, ‘lop-sided.’ He is poor in spirit and less fitted for the happy life of the free citizen. It is for us to-day to emphasise the special place and the peculiar character of skilled learning or motor learning in the production of this culture.

Motor Learning and Ideational Learning

Learning is now conceived not as something which happens to a passive individual, but as an activity in which he takes part. It is ‘the active self development of the individual through his experience.’ This implies the self adaptation of the individual to his experience as selected. This adaptation may be either ideational or motor.

Ideational learning is that form of self development which involves mainly the cognitive adaptation of the learner, whereas *motor learning* is, in the main, a kinæsthetic adaptation to environment together with the building up of a motor structure of habits, skills, and other new action patterns as

the result of his reaction to experiences. This distinction between motor and ideational learning is quite useful, although we rarely find simple examples of one pure type in practice. There are few ideational adaptations which involve nothing in the way of motor adaptations. Similarly most forms of motor adaptation presuppose a grasp of the design, pattern, set, or configuration underlying the motor configuration. The motor reactive side of human behaviour is worthy of special attention at the hands of the student, for it has its own special conditions and problems. The laws of motor learning are not the laws of ideational learning. To sum up, then. We can distinguish between the *cognitive* self adjustment of the individual to his environment and *motor* self adjustment through his experiences, for each are facets of life.

The Status of Motor Learning

Conferences are notable places for heresy hunts. Let us do a spot of hunting this morning. The popular idea that mathematics affords culture for the mind and that handicraft affords culture of the body is, of course, founded on a complete misconception of the nature of the human organism. We have ourselves largely to blame for fostering this erroneous notion when we put forth such shoddy arguments for craft work as that it develops the finer muscles of the hand and the motor centre in the brain. Why, motor learning is just as much mental as ideational learning. The roots of the error lie in conceiving the essential function of the mind to be that of 'thinking' conceptually. This is akin to the popular view of imagination as being pictorial imagination. There are at least four other types of imagery besides pictorial, and not the least important of these types are the kinæsthetic and motor imagery. We must understand, then, that motor learning is mental learning in the truest sense, and without qualification for it embodies the diagnostic feature of mentality, purpose—purpose fulfilled through practical achievement.

Nor is motor learning even an inferior form, or an easier form of mental learning. The aristocracy of skill is more popularly appreciated and more generously remunerated than the aristocracy of intellect. Most high court judges would envy the salary of a first rate athlete or film star.

If motor learning were the easier form of learning, one would expect that the animal, being at a lower level biologically than man, would excel in it. But the conclusions

from the study of animal learning have forced us to the conclusion that animal learning is almost entirely ideational. MacDougall remarks: 'Let us notice first that secondarily automatic or skilled movements implying motor habits are almost peculiar to man. Few animals acquire any modes of movement beyond those provided for in the innate constitution of the species. It is only the most intelligent animals and they only under the patient control and guidance of man, that acquire motor habits. In all such cases, the new (or acquired) combinations of muscular action are closely allied to the natural (or innately organised) movements and involve but little recombination.'

Man excels in both intellectual and motor learning, but his special and peculiar province is apparently that of motor performance. The specifically human development of arts and crafts and the motor elaboration of the material side of civilisation are evidences of this. Civilised man in urban surroundings may indeed re-echo the epitaph on another, himself a great craftsman, Sir Christopher Wren, 'Si monumentum quaeritis, circumspice.' We are therefore neglecting man's most specifically human attribute if we are neglecting the culture of skill.

Some Characteristics of Skill

The living organism is created for activity. Thought is rightly regarded as instrumental for action. The ideal of pure knowledge which 'thank goodness can be of no use to anybody' is not seriously defended. Knowledge is valuable at least for discovery and further research. Knowledge only fulfils itself in action.

The most elementary student of psychology knows that man is the inheritor of strong, instinctive propensities which are the very essence of his being. To them he owes survival and on them the educator must build in the way of rendering them controllable and of social utility. The fulfilment of instinct in action—and the alternative is some antisocial perverse expression—requires that we shall attend to the outcome of instinct in action as part of our educational efforts. The action which is the consummation of instinct should be graceful, fluent, controlled, expressive of personality. That is one meaning of the education of action. The process is one of effecting the transformation of impulse, reflex, and instinct into skill.

Skill itself must be rightly understood. Skill is not another name for a set of habits. A boy is not more cultured for

acquiring a number of tool-using habits. He may be less so if he acquires routing skill in doing one repetition process which so occupies his time that he cannot attend to other intellectual values. The working drudge is not a prime example of culture.

Skill is more than Habit

Habit is nothing more than the routine, mechanical, non-intelligent repetition of an action pattern. Skill, however, which uses habit, implies a complete mastery of habit and the ability to set aside habit if it interferes with adequate motor self expression. There is a factor of plasticity in skill. The more the element of adaptiveness predominates, the more intensely skilled is the reaction.

At its lowest, skill appears to be little more than a bundle of habits. At its highest, skill is a total reaction of the psychophysical organism in a manner which is in the highest degree expressive of personality. Skill is the embodied wisdom of the race expressed in action and our skills are handed down in an apostolic succession of craft. The mastery of tradition gives the skilled craftsman a start from which he may hope to excel. He may be truly an inventor who may discover a finer or rarer adjustment which is possibly communicable to posterity. Outstanding genius is not communicable, for it is too individual, and the personal element in higher skills sets the stamp of uniqueness which is not transferable. We may have equal performances of outstanding merit, but never so absolutely similar that we cannot discern the difference which is the mark of individuality.

Skill is, in fine, more than mere motor dexterity. It is an objectification of mind in a body-mind reaction to environment which has the individuality of a poem. The higher skills are usually exercised over some complex spatio-temporal field and are only achieved after much practice and when the individual is at the height of his powers. Practice and self discipline are essential. The joys of high achievement are reserved for those who have proved themselves worthy by self discipline and training, and to us schoolmasters falls the lot of the preliminary discipline in skill which is the condition of further progress. The Board scheme shows a realisation of this fact.

The final achievement of skill has been fitly characterised by the very happy metaphor of the Destalt school as *Movement Melody*. Movement is especially amenable to rhythmic considerations. The poetry of motion is something more

than a mere figurative expression, for it indicates the fine æsthetic quality of the higher forms of skilled activity. Cinema slow motion studies of our finest athletes in action amply illustrate this. Skilled motor functioning then is a progressive elaboration of movement melody and this æsthetic aspect is one of the principal sources of satisfaction to the highly skilled performer of skills either in work or in play.

The core of skilled instruction in our schools is in school handiercrafts. In games, the pupil has been discovering the control of poise and control of the body as a whole. In the little acts of everyday life he is learning muscle-nerve co-ordinations which are the basis on which fine skills can be developed.

And now let us note that considered purely in terms of skill, any secondarily acquired action patterns are skills and not all skills have the same educational value. It has been pointed out that if hand and eye co-ordination be the sole end of school craft teaching, then this end might be more easily and pleasantly attained through billiards. Many very intriguing and complex skills have no educational value at all. The village darts champion; the shove ha'penny expert; the winner of a rubber of Christmas parlour games; these are not our models. Skills may have a recreative value, a social value, or an educational value. Our serious concern is with the educational skills and very little reflection convinces us that these are the core of school skill. On the pure side of mental development, handicraft provides excellent discipline in the control and organisation of motor reactions. The body becomes truly the servant of the mind. But that is the side we are least inclined to emphasise. We are more concerned in that through the exercise of his craft, the child becomes a humble follower in the path of those who have enriched our civilisation with enduring works of human achievement in art, in sculpture, in engineering, in building, in that vast array of material beauty surrounding us which reminds us of man's epic fight against a grudging nature.

What Culture can we Promise through Practical Education?

We can promise firstly to turn out the man who is at home in his world. The mere bookish person is only fit to live in libraries. In the throbbing world he is as much a stranger as a whisky baron at a temperance convention. He is never adjusted and never happy, and in consequence never healthy.

Our practically trained man is in a better position. His reactions, grounded in a knowledge of things and materials and first hand acquaintance with life, are more completely satisfying.

More than this, our practical man is afforded the opportunity for self expression. Few who are trained in ideas ever express themselves adequately either in the spoken or the written word. But all who 'can something make and joy in the making,' find thereby a mode of self expression as satisfying as the half-witted savage who builds his own hut. Self expression comes more naturally to man through construction than through any other channel, unless this instinct is thwarted in the formative period, and in the latter case he can neither make something good nor recognise the good when he sees it. He is at the mercy of the 'Jerry builder,' the purveyor of shoddy clothing, of bad art, and atrocious domestic furniture and decoration. In the training of taste, handiwork has no rival, for along with the culture of craft comes right feeling and right thinking. The only satisfactory training in æsthetics is that which comes through practice for the practitioner obtains an intimate and inner knowledge and sympathy which the outsider can never attain through cold intellectual appreciation. More than that, for the less gifted of our fellows, practical expression is the only form of expression available.

My final word is a reminder that culture is a social value rather than an individual one. The value of handiwork for leisure has been stressed. A mechanised mass repetition production has caused us to despair of the return of anything like self expression through work, or satisfaction through the exercise of personal skill. Much needs to be done to overcome the poisonous influence of quick production on the taste for leisure crafts. When substitutes for home-made articles can be obtained at the threepenny and sixpenny stores, there is little incentive to make them by laborious hand tool methods. But only the faint-hearted are repelled. Mass produced articles, alike as peas in a pod, are truly cheap. They never satisfy. Individually produced quality goods have a beauty and a satisfaction of their own. Much of our effort needs to be devoted to counteracting the tendency to imitate the cheap commercial article. Moreover, the whole future of even commercial products is with us. When our skilled craftsmen dry up, then commercial craft must inevitably deteriorate. We have a trust to supply a steady stream of men who will be the repositories of good tradition

in craft and fired with the zeal to carry further their powers, and to be in fact creative and to repay their debt to the world by work of which their posterity may be proud.

And as leisure has received its emphasis, one may be pardoned for observing that there is a cant of leisure. Industry is, for good or bad, man's bread and butter, the sources of his home and comforts. Industry which has changed our environment may itself be changed and we may change it in the school.

We may impart the right attitude towards work. The greedy employer, the bullying, ignorant foreman, the scamping, inefficient workman are alike products of our schools. A good school atmosphere may lead to good work atmosphere. Self government in the school may give the training which is essential for self government in industry. Industry stands in greater need to-day than ever before of the spirit of the craftsmen of old. We must not fail in our mission.

May I quote, as is most fitting in this ancient seat of learning, some words of the Greek poet, Sophocles :

' There are marvellous wonders many
Where'er this world we scan,
Yet among them nowhere any
So great a marvel as Man.
To the white sea's uttermost verges
Afloat this miracle goes,
Forging through thunderous surges
When the wintry south wind blows.

The blithe swift careless races
On light wing flying in air
With speed of his wit he chases
And takes in woven snare :
All deer in wild wood running,
The deep seas diverse kind,
Are snared in toils by the cunning
Of man's outrivalling mind.

He hath found out speech and the giving
Of wings to his high proud thought
And the ordered spirit of living
In towns his mind hath taught.
Shelter from arrowy shafts,
Of the bleak air's frost and sleet :
There is naught in store but his crafts
Shall have armed him ready to meet.'

If Sophocles were told that our schools could still turn out children who could not sing a song, play a musical instrument, swim or dance ; who could neither speak nor

write with distinction ; who could neither use the instruments of War nor Peace ; who could not even build a wall like Dallus, or make the table from which they dine ; and whose women folk could not cook the meal upon the table, nor bake the bread, nor repair the cloak, then I beg leave to think that he would have doubted the value of any of our so much over-rated cultural subjects, and the second chorus of the Antigone would have to be understood in an ironical sense."

Discussion and Business

Mr. E. Holden, in opening the discussion on the papers read, pointed out that the past few decades of academic teaching had simply continued the outlook and emphasised the ideas propounded when schools were established in mediæval times for the training of the Clerk, who had to gain proficiency otherwise he was not technically proficient for the needs of his vocation. However suitable were the subjects for such technical training of workers in the field of religion, they had been proven to be woefully lacking for the needs of the worker in industry or commerce.

In accordance with the instructions of the Directors of the W.F.E.A., the Department proceeded to elect Chairman and Secretary for the ensuing biennium, so that continuous organising and programme building may be carried on for the conference to be held in Tokyo in 1937.

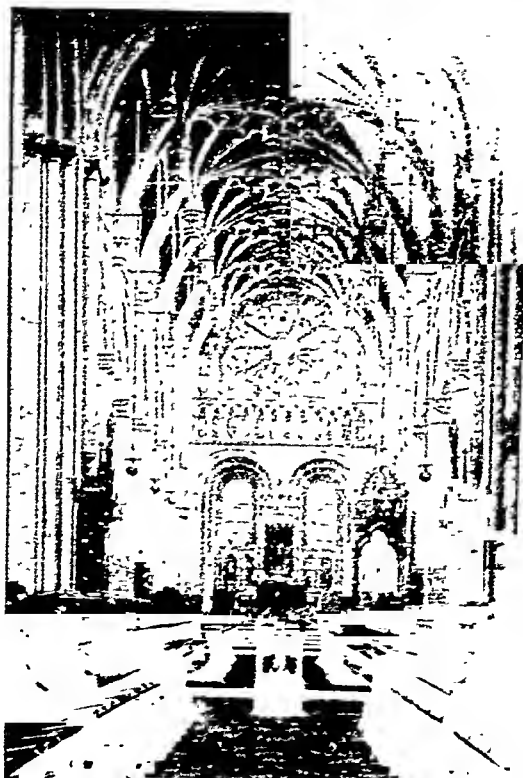
Principal J. Lloyd was elected as Chairman, and Mr. E. Holden (Technical College, Gloucester, England), as Secretary.

The Secretary reported that speakers and workers from the section had given mutual co-operation and help in other sections where matters of common interest had been under discussion, giving practical proof of a possible fruitful partnership which was deserving of development and strengthening. The Section gave a warm fraternal welcome to Dr. Wilhelm Viola, of Vienna, a prominent colleague of Dr. Cizeh, the founder of the school of self-expression.

Dr. Viola gave a lucid account of the methods adopted and proved successful. Incidentally Dr. Viola paid high praise to the excellent standard of work he had been privileged to see in English nursery and infants' schools.

The Chairman, in closing the section, referred to the success of the three meetings through the pooling of ideas and experience. He pointed out the Officers of the Department had also been closely engaged in co-operating with the various unifying Committees. He gave thanks to the readers of papers, and to those taking active part in the deliberations and discussions. Mr. E. W. Boorman, N.U.T. Executive, supported the Chairman in returning thanks for a most successful conference.

The party of delegates then remaining assembled in front of Mansfield College for an official photograph.



[Photo: Alden (Oxford)]

CHRIST CHURCH CATHEDRAL: LOOKING EAST
(Pier Arches c. 1180. Choir Roof 1490)

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Chairman : H. N. PENLINGTON, Treasurer, N.U.T.

Secretary : A. GRANVILLE PRIOR, Executive, N.U.T.

Place of Meeting: The Union Society Hall.

TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST: FIRST SESSION, 10.0 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

The Chairman announced that the first speaker, Dean W. F. Russell (Columbia University) was not present and that no paper had been received from him.

It was also announced that the Section was without a Secretary, and the Chairman appealed for a volunteer to record the proceedings. Mr. A. Granville Prior (Executive, N.U.T.), undertook this duty.

The Chairman thereupon, in a few well chosen words, introduced Mr. J. Littlejohns to his audience.

The Training in the Appreciation of Art as a Means of Fostering an Appreciation of the Work of People in Other Lands

J. Littlejohns (late Senior Art Master, Westminster City School)

“ The title of this paper (for which I am not responsible) seems to make three assumptions :

(1) That there can be a common agreement among educationists as to the meaning of Art.

(2) That there can be some agreed educational methods to develop artistic taste.

(3) That such taste can lead to international appreciation of Art.

If these assumptions are untenable there appears to be little use in discussing the subject. For if there is no considerable measure of agreement about meaning and method the object is unattainable. Unfortunately there is no good reason to believe, at the present time, any of these three assumptions. In every branch of Art—theoretical, practical and educational—there is a desperate state of war about fundamentals. There never were such widely differing conceptions of what constitutes a work of art ; consequently there are equally differing views about the training of taste. And the recent violent outburst of restrictive nationalism bids fair to make international art appreciation a breach of patriotism. There may have been periods in world history when Art principles and international agreements were sufficiently stable to warrant some hope that the object embodied in this title might be fulfilled. But at no period in modern times has the situation been so hopeless as to-day.

In the history of Art there have been many long periods of what were regarded as steady consistent evolution from birth to old age, succeeded by others which followed a similar course: These were broken by short periods of dissension when the old gave way to the new. But the present struggle seems to differ radically from its predecessors. Usually the changes were, or were believed to be, extensions of artistic expression. To-day, however, the declared intention is to sweep away all traditional culture and return to the primitive. Modern art teaching is reflecting this attitude with astonishing fidelity.

Until recently English art education was but slightly influenced, partly because of a lack of original or translated literature on the subject, but mainly because no official recognition had been given to certain revolutionary conceptions which have been thriving in other parts of the world, notably in Vienna. But, true to our national character, we stood out longest against violent change and then capitulated with dramatic suddenness. The last few years have seen a swift movement from disbelief or unconcern to whole-hearted acceptance and uncompromising advocacy of the most revolutionary conceptions, backed by powerful influences. It has been named the New Art Teaching.

To anyone unacquainted with recent developments in art theory, history, psychology, teaching and appreciation the pronouncements of the advocates of the New Art Teaching read like a series of deliberate perversions of obvious truths. Hitherto children's drawings have been regarded as

interesting evidences of the workings of immature minds and valued for their promise rather than their fulfilment. But in his recent book 'Picture Making by Children,' Mr. Tomlinson, Senior L.C.C. Art Inspector, hails these drawings as veritable works of art. He says of them :

' There is always, right from the first, a definite sense of space and proportion, not the mechanical rule-of-thumb-proportion of the old school of teaching. From the very beginning the child's work is inspired by a naturally ordered feeling.'

' While the child revels in the purity of colour its colour schemes are never vulgar or overladen, but have the quality of restraint touched by delicacy and precision.'

' In the whole realm of art there is nothing more refreshing than the pure unsophisticated expressions of children.'

Professor Cizek, the high priest of the New Art Teaching, interviewed recently by the editor of the *Teachers World*, said :

' Children are greater artists than the painters.'

Mr. Herbert Read, writing in *The Listener*, when reviewing a book by a distinguished New Art Teacher, Miss Richardson, L.C.C. Art Inspector, puts the new belief with equally uncompromising emphasis :

' Miss Richardson's children produce colour combinations which make all our studio and art school and industrial productions look tawdry and dull.'

These wonderful powers, to which few artists attain, are said to be born in the children. The New Psychology claims that pictures and patterns come straight from the unconscious. Miss Gibbs in 'The Teaching of Art in Schools' writes :

' The wonderful sense of pattern and feeling for colour which develops so early in the child's work is a purely instinctive result of the effort to put down the often subconscious images in its mind.'

Others claim that instinctive patterns sometimes release the child's morbid fancies.

But this wonderful power seldom lasts longer than from the eighth to tenth year. Says Cizek :

‘When childhood goes the wonderful skill goes with it.’

One of the evidences of degeneration is the desire to imitate nature, and one of the aids to degeneration is teaching and culture. To quote Cizek : ‘The more you learn the less you know. If you learn less you know more. The more culture the less freedom. . . . Shakespeare and the Greek tradition have dominated culture . . . we must free youth from these chains.’

Even observation, on which copying depends, is a degenerating practice. Mr. Read calls observation ‘a scientific and not an æsthetic attitude.’ If children are left alone they would visualise (which is quite different from observing) and would draw from visual memories. Mr. Tomlinson goes so far as to say that if this practice were continued, free from interference, children’s drawings would probably become abstract. It is not surprising to know that Cizek declares ‘I do not teach.’ Teaching is interference.

Obviously this astonishing new view of children’s artistic powers must have an equally astonishing influence on the new view of art appreciation. The New Art teacher fears for the child’s æsthetic safety when surrounded by the menacing influences of traditional pictures, which like Shakespeare and the Greek tradition, have been a dominating danger. Mr. Tomlinson is rather guarded but his meaning is clear. He says :

‘If the children were denied access to illustrations there would be a steady development. . .’

‘It may be considered wise not to show too many reproductions, even of the old masters.’

‘It may, perhaps, be safe to have a few pictures, a few black and white drawings and even abstract designs, if they are changed frequently.’

‘Art galleries and old masters constitute a treasury of material for reference’ (not, apparently, for contemplation and enjoyment).

There is, however, a significant exception :

‘It is found that when the teacher brings contemporary life and art to the child in the art lesson there is immediate response and attention. By sustaining this interest the teacher should be able to foster the child’s capacity for appreciation.’

Put into plain language this means that children should be discouraged from appreciating traditional art and encouraged to appreciate modern art.

Needless to say these pronouncements are regarded with horror by the larger but diminishing section of art educationists and especially by those who teach the veneration of tradition the holding of the mirror up to nature.

I do not propose to take sides in the disputes between opposed views, partly because I do not agree either with the die-hards or the revolutionaries, but mainly because I want to concentrate attention on the ominous fact that the immense divergence of views is bound to be destructive of the growth of art appreciation.

In one respect the New Art Teaching appears to be at variance with nationalistic tendencies of to-day. Picano is a Spaniard and his immediate followers are French. Cizek, I believe, is a native of Vienna.

And as all children are equally primitives and inspired with the same powers of expression all over the world, the appreciation of children's drawings is completely international.

Also the whole movement is professedly based on freedom of personal expression; but not freedom to contemplate adult pictures other than contemporary. Such would be dangerous, just as freedom to live would be endangered by freedom to play with fire or drink poison. It follows therefore that the child is safe when contemplating only those pictures of which the revolutionary teacher approves. The action of the L.C.C. is consistent with this view. Previously its collection of reproduction of pictures loaned to its schools contained examples of many schools of painting, but few, if any, of the most modern types. Now the collection consists mainly of reproductions of works by post impressionists. The justification of this change is expressed by the chief art inspector in the following declaration:

‘This is the machine or power age, not the romantic, the religious nor the agricultural age. The great art of the past fitted the age to which it belonged; so, too, must the art of to-day.’

My own small contribution to the subject is contained in a book entitled ‘The Training of Taste in the Arts and Crafts.’ It consists partly of an inquiry into children's preferences at succeeding ages to find a basis for a method of training. Several thousands of children were examined in various

classes of schools, both urban and rural. But the results could not justify more than tentative conclusions. They appear to reveal, however, a definite, material evolution of taste and a strong distaste for modern pictures. But few children are able to form unbiassed judgments. They tend to dislike the unusual, and as their art education had consisted largely of exercises in copying they consequently preferred pictures correctly depicting nature. It may be that the rising generation, if brought up on severe New Art lines, and seeing nothing but Cubist pictures would dislike the finest old masters.

Out of this investigation arose a method of training in taste. The children were asked to examine two or more pictures of a kind suited to their stage of development but varying in treatment. At first the examples were widely different so that most children preferred one much more than the other. As the children progressed in discrimination the differences were lessened. No indication was given that any picture was superior. All that was praised was the child's clearness of spoken and written expression. Then the class discussed the replies under the chairmanship of the teacher, who never expressed his own tastes. He was ready to give information about the painters, their methods, purposes and times; and, when the children were sufficiently advanced to be interested, he told them why the pictures were liked or disliked by writers on the subject. These lessons soon resulted in acutely critical essays, and a marked increase in the expressiveness of the children's original drawings. And when he took them to exhibitions, the children looked with intelligence because they possessed individual standards of value.

This method demands a type of teacher regrettably rare—one who recognises that the child's first right is to be himself, and must not be turned into a little æsthetic humbug, who pretends to have that illusory quality of appreciation generally known as 'good taste.' He must not want to convert, but only to develop whether the child becomes tasteful according to any standard is no concern of the teacher. The best he can do is to help the child to perfect his own instinctive learnings.

Any limitation of experience must inevitably lead to unbalanced conclusions. Even if there were a generally acknowledged standard of excellence the superior pictures could never be appreciated without comparing them with inferior ones. But when there are conflicting standards the

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Any limitation of experience must inevitably lead to unbalanced conclusions. Even if there were a generally acknowledged standard of excellence the superior pictures could never be appreciated without comparing them with inferior ones. But when there are conflicting standards the

case for limitation surely becomes more ridiculous. Giving children full opportunities to compare freely all kinds and to come to their own conclusions might raise them above the petty squabbles of narrow-minded fanatics. This broadminded course is out of the question in many of our schools to-day because the control and training is so largely in the hands of enthusiasts for this, that or the other conception of Art who are fearful lest any child should grow to like what they dislike. Their respect for the child's freedom is in inverse ratio to their own passionate belief in their own exclusiveness. They are saddened when a child wants help to climb up his own æsthetic tree. They want to provide it with one of *their* trees. The intensity of their convictions turns them into propagandists and petty dictators. Freedom for the child tends to become freedom to like what they like. They may not know they are doing it; they may, indeed, be enthusiasts for the ideas of freedom. But by looks, tones, gestures and in many other ways they can thwart and stifle the growth of the child's æsthetic individuality.

It should be possible for a really broadminded teacher to so organise the child's experiences of pictures that it could contemplate and compare examples suited to its growing powers. And by including among the pictures examples of all countries and all times the child's appreciation would transcend narrow geographical and historical boundaries.

I fear that this survey may have sounded doleful and pessimistic; but it is useless to close our eyes to significant facts. Revolutionary art teaching may or may not be a good thing. It may or may not make for a truer appreciation of Art. The older views may or may not be inferior and may or may not be destined to give place to new conceptions. There may or may not be some view superior to both. But while the present confusion outside the schools is carried into the schools the children will be the victims of the contending forces.

My own view is that there is a truer course between those who tend to like what is old and conservative because it is old and conservative and those who like what is new and revolutionary because it is new and revolutionary. I do not believe in the worship of tradition nor do I regard it as a dead hand. Both attitudes are stupid and prejudiced. Among artists both attitudes are not surprising because artists are generally swayed by their own æsthetic preferences.

But that responsible educationists should advocate and

influence the adoption of such wildly opposed views of æsthetics, psychology, history, teaching and appreciation is truly lamentable. And little as I love the dictator I sometimes long for one who would knock their heads together, good and plenty.

If there is no way to lessen these enormous divergencies it is obvious that all the researches into every aspect of art education have been worse than useless. The time has arrived when every question relating to the training of taste should be investigated by an international body of practical teachers well fitted to arrive at unbiassed judgments. For while there is no international language of art there can be no international understanding and goodwill."

Having thanked Mr. Littlejohns, the Chairman called upon Dr. H. Adams (Executive, N.U.T.) to open the discussion.

Dr. Adams said: "The artist in every epoch looks at nature with his own eyes, and also with the eyes of his age and of his country. As such it finds expression in pictures, architecture and the many decorative activities of man.

The study of man-the-artist opens up a very wide field, which may be approached along two channels, the one horizontal, the other vertical. The horizontal may be regarded as that which covers the wide range of subjects coming under the term art—the vertical may be regarded as covering the historical development of man's artistic activities.

Historically we may safely begin with the Stone Age drawings, which show how art was man's first written language—and as such we may regard it to-day. Consequently it is of immense value as a medium through which one can cultivate international relations. There is no difficulty of translation. It is a language open to all who can read the language of art.

In the Middle Ages art played its part in the development of religious thought. It is here that we find it playing its part in fostering good international relations, for the best that was in religion found expression in art and that which was best and properly directed—if given its chance—would have done much to establish permanent peace.

Art has relation to the universal life of culture. 'My Kingdom is not of this world' is true of art.

Surely we find the best, the noblest and highest called

forth in man through works of art. We, who have met here, cannot but feel ennobled by our stay in this city of Oxford because we find the art of man, impressing itself upon us at every turning.

It brings us back to those days when production was slow and laborious—when artistic talent found an outlet in the production of everyday articles—when art was not divorced from life. And in so far as that state of affairs lasted training in appreciation of art was not necessary. The craftsman developed his sense of colour—of harmony through the exercise of his craft. It grew with him—it became part of him—it developed in true proportion through his artistic sense in relation to the materials with which he worked.

Thus, to appreciate and understand the work of a great master—be he painter or craftsman—was part of life itself. This was not peculiar to any one nation—it was an expression of life which passed beyond national boundaries—it taught man to see the nobleness of the work of men of other lands. Thus the art of every period appears as a mirror of the age—a summarised chronicle of its age. With intangible majesty it lays hold of the external world and gives back its own finely illuminated picture; it seeks to find that distinctive element which appertains to its age and thereby interprets the whole, not the part. It is international, not national. Humility and devotion are joined together for a refinement in life's feeling that is unsurpassed for tenderness and gracious innocence.

The artist may be a narrow nationalist, but art never is. Hence, though he may represent still life, the animal world and landscape, another and a higher life exists in man and there is the true object of art. If the artist proceeds from the external vision he will achieve a formal decorative embellishment. Of what consequence is that in comparison with the presentation of character?

Because the artist can and does appreciate these great and noble works of the masters of other lands, because he sees in them the highest of other nationalities, he reaches a fuller understanding and appreciation of the best of that race. He cannot be a narrow nationalist after seeing the truth in art. So may we all attain to this, even though we cannot produce the works ourselves.

International understanding must rest upon an understanding of the everyday life, emotions and aspirations of peoples. And as no body of men interpret these more truly

than the artists, they can influence those who can understand and appreciate their works as no others can.

Hogarth looked on the world around and like the dramatic writer he gave it in all its beauty and all its ugliness. By this means each nation learns how much there is in each to admire and to reject—so may humility be fostered and false pride destroyed. The whole world can *read* his pictures.

The true artist takes infinite trouble to know the facts before a great picture is commenced. He gives the truth. By this search for, and representation of, truth the sum total of human achievement has been increased and respect and admiration is gained from those who have cultivated this gift of appreciation.

Who can see, read and appreciate the works of Corot and Millet without understanding the life of the French peasant. One grows to love them for their simplicity. Never have heart and hand, a man and his work, sojourned with each other as they did with him.

He had to be true to the art within him, it knew the French peasant; art with him did not commence with the external.

He was a peasant of the peasants, always a peasant. To know and understand his works is to understand a race. That is all that is necessary for real lasting international understanding.

I think, then, it is apparent that Art teaches us to see things in their true perspective, to see beauty, to see the whole in its totality of surroundings and because we can only see such a small piece of our own life and of our own nation's life we fail to appreciate life as a whole, and go to war. If the same sight were focussed upon international relations as is focussed upon the search for truth in Art by the artists, international muddles would rapidly smooth themselves out.

This creative function of art is exerted to bringing the high light of human life into true perspective both in the picture and in the mind of those who can appreciate form, colour, tone and rhythm. Brought into life they enrich the world—brought into international life they give balance which is so often lacking.

Constable, Corot and Rousseau achieved pictures that need not be ashamed to face the great styles of old, and this is because they exhibited themselves as they were instead of making themselves large by standing on the shoulders of the great dead, and it is this breadth, nobility of purpose and character which truly understood takes man into realms wherein petty jealousies of nationalism cannot exist.

To make these works understandable to the masses is the work of those who teach artistic appreciation, it is for them to introduce the pupil into this realm of healthy emotionalism—a spiritual realm which must be attained if we are to learn to seek truth in all nations and recognise that human beings of all nationalities have far more that is in harmony with each other than in disharmony.

The life of humans is relatively short, yet to us it is the limit of our horizon. The life of a people is long; much may be achieved in the life of a people, and because we take the narrow view—which is natural—we fail to seek to establish the long distance claim. Art is lasting, not fleeting as the life of man—hence it teaches us to take the long view. The long view is accepted by all, as the view to world peace, only our immediate little problems hinder our plans.

Therefore art is international in its outlook. That is its great contribution to better international relations."

SECOND SESSION, 2.0 P.M.—4.30 P.M.

The Chairman, in opening the Second Session, introduced M. Lapierre as one of few devoted men who had given up all their spare time for international relationships.

The Teaching of History and International Co-operation

G. Lapierre (International Federation of Teachers' Associations)

"Is it possible to teach history in a manner that will make it of real educational value to school children of different ages, adapted to their various psychological needs and capable of being that instrument of culture it is claimed by historians to be?"

Is it possible to combine national history with general human history, to reconcile the scientific spirit with a spirit of international co-operation and to enable the teaching of history to fulfil a two-fold educational mission, national and humanitarian?

The teaching of history to adults may readily be made to serve its purpose of sociological education by familiarising them with fundamental social phenomena and with the idea of continual change in human affairs.

The task becomes infinitely more difficult, however, when the teaching is addressed to children. It has been rightly said that history is a science for adults. Nevertheless we persist in teaching it to children, believing it to be one of the indispensable elements of popular instruction and national education. In all countries where elementary education for all was instituted in the course of the nineteenth century history was included in the curriculum.

It was found necessary, however, to develop a method of teaching history, selecting the most prominent and impressive facts and seeking means to render them prominent and impressive, a method wholly empirical in the first place, disregarding the assimilative capacity of the child in the desire to impress upon it facts that the future citizen should know.

Later, while pedagogues continued to labour at inventing new methods of practical instruction, psychologists endeavoured to determine the receptive capacity of the child.

Considering the child as a human subject of instruction, at what age should the teaching of history commence, in what measure and on the basis of what kind of facts should and can such instruction be given in elementary schools to enable it to be useful and effective from an educational point of view ?

M. Bovet of the J. J. Rousseau Institute has said that the difficulties can be summarised under the following three heads :—(1) in the representation of time ; (2) in the interpretation and understanding of certain social and political conceptions (State, Government, Nation, etc.) which play a predominant part in the traditional presentation of history ; (3) in the application of the idea of cause in relation to social facts.

Psychological research on this subject is still in an initial stage. Continuing the work of Decroly and Baldwin, M. Piaget, in conjunction with the Institute of Educational Science of the University of Geneva, has studied the following points :—

(1) Is it possible to analyse the child's conception of the past, lying outside his own experience and beyond the limits of his memory ?



DELEGATES FROM CHINA
Mr. I. K. LOH, Mr. H. F. TANG, MISS DZIN, AND Mr. T. Y. TANG

(2) Is the historical knowledge acquired by a child and his valuation of the facts of history considered by him as related only to his own particular social group, or rather as applying to all men, and in consequence absolutely true?

M. Piaget comes to the following conclusions :

Even in relation to concrete realities or facts most familiar to the child the past appears to be conceived by him in terms of the present, not the reverse. It is, however, precisely by reversing this perspective that an understanding of history is possible.

A child's past is neither remote nor divided into distinct periods. The universe is centred round the country or even the town in which the child lives. His historical conceptions, as all his other conceptions, are centred round himself.

Teachers should bear this in mind in future, avoid premature instruction on systematic lines and use methods adapted to the age of their pupils. It is, however, evident that 'fables, the history of things and biographies,' as proposed by M. Ferriere for the three ages of childhood, can only serve as an introduction to a real historic education, and that such an education, if it is to be given to all, can only be given to adults as a continuation of their obligatory school education.

It is very difficult to expect of children the objectivity of the historian. The child is moved by historical narratives, takes sides with passionate enthusiasm and necessarily looks to history for confirmation and illustration of lessons on character and civic conduct.

He looks to history for such examples the more readily as in all countries the teaching of history has been given a national mission to fulfil.

If, in the words of Fénelon, 'the good historian belongs to no time and no country, and though he loves his country, he never flatters it in anything,' the professor and teacher of history and the historical text-book must, according to M. Franz Van Kalken, Professor at the University of Brussels, define and inculcate the idea of country.

'National history, especially in the lower classes, must be made the central point of instruction,' reaffirmed M. Van Kalken after the International Congress on Secondary Education, held at Geneva in 1926.

This national egocentrism is indeed far removed from the

objectivity proclaimed by historians, and readily leads to national exclusiveness and an aggressive nationalism.

Most historical text-books in use before the war in the various countries contained these distortions to such a degree that they aroused the indignation of educationists and historians and formed the subject of critical studies as well as moral and legal sanctions.

These misplaced manifestations of national propaganda in the schools and the disparagement of other nations created a desire among thinking people in all countries after the war and among all those having the establishment of lasting peace between all nations at heart, to deliver the teaching of history from the reproach of perpetuating misunderstandings and ill-feeling between the nations and, by uniting indissolubly the scientific spirit with the spirit of international co-operation, to make history one of the keys to international enlightenment.

The twofold problem thus arose: (1) to draw up, by means of as impartial an inquiry as possible, an inventory of historical text-books containing chauvinistic distortions harmful to good understanding between nations, and subsequently to determine the means of revising or withdrawing such text-books.

(2) To reconcile in new historical curricula and text-books national and international history, the scientific problem of historical education with the moral problem of good-will among nations.

We must now relate the efforts made by public authorities and by the interested associations (historians, professors, teachers, educationalists, moralists, etc.) towards the solution of these two problems.

The first steps to be recorded in this direction were:

1. *Article 148 of the Constitution of Weimar*:—
Education in the spirit of reconciliation among all peoples.

2. Declaration of the council of the League of Nations in September, 1931, according to which 'a spirit of mutual international understanding is an essential condition for the life of a League of Nations' and the creation of an International Commission for Intellectual Co-operation.

These steps were followed by:—

(3) Inquiry of the Carnegie Institute on the subject of post-war school text-books (1923).

(4) Formation by the International Commission for intellectual Co-operation of the Sub-Committee of Experts for Teaching Youth the Aims of the League of Nations (1923).

(5) The Casarès resolution, adopted by this Sub-Committee, instituting a manner of procedure for eliminating from school text-books passages harmful to good understanding between nations (1925).

(6) The campaign conducted by the National Union of French Teachers from 1926 to 1928, resulting in the total elimination of French text-books of bellicose tendencies.

(7) The parallel efforts undertaken by French teachers in the international field, resulting in the creation of an International Federation of Teachers' Associations, having for object the co-operation of teachers and schools towards securing peace among nations (1926).

(8) The principles of Berne laid down by the Text-book Commission of the Committee for the Continuation of the World Conference on Practical Christianity, defining the meaning of bad text-books.

(9) Resolutions of successive Congresses of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations :—

(a) at Berlin in 1928 : resolution advocating international impartiality in teaching ;

(b) at Bellinzona in 1929 : project of an international history and preparation of an international work showing the contribution of each nation towards general civilisation ;

(c) at Luxemburg in 1932 : debate on the special subject of the teaching of international history.

(10) The work of the International Institute for Intellectual Co-operation and of the Committee of Experts for the Revision of school text-books ; preparation of a report by the I.I.I.C., regarding the revision of school text-books containing passages harmful to mutual understanding between nations (1932).

(11) Formation of the Committee for Moral Disarmament by the Disarmament Conference, at the suggestion of the Polish Delegation and with the support of the International Commission for Intellectual Co-operation (1932).

(12) The International Conference on the Teaching of History which met at The Hague in 1932 and at Basle in 1934 for considering the views of historians, teachers and pacifists.

These various efforts have met with varying success. The resolutions laid before the Committee for Moral Disarmament, the recommendations of the International Commission for Intellectual Co-operation, even when approved by the Council of the League of Nations, have in most cases had a merely platonic character and encountered the resistance of individual Governments, anxious to preserve unimpaired the sovereignty of their several States on matters affecting disarmament.

The Historical Conference revealed stubborn prejudices among historians regarding all the efforts of educationists for reconciling the scientific spirit with a spirit of international co-operation.

The dictatorial Governments have plainly shown their intention of using historical teaching for national and even nationalistic ends. 'It is the duty of a nationalist State to cause a history of the world to be written in which the question of race will be of paramount importance' (Hitler, 'Mein Kampf'.)

On the other hand the efforts of teachers and of pacifist organisations and National Unions of the League of Nations in various countries have not been without results.

They may be summarised as follows :

(1) Revision in most countries of 'coloured' text-books, under pressure of educationists and pacifists.

(2) Efforts made towards establishing a method of teaching history which, while allowing for psychological limitations in children of different ages :

emphasises the contribution of all nations towards the common heritage of mankind ;

gives the child a feeling of universal solidarity and removes from his mind the false and dangerous idea of a community of interests limited to the bounds of his own particular country.

(3) The practical difficulty of realising a text-book of international history suitable for use in all countries, but with possibility of each country working out and putting into effect a programme of historical instruction

that will emphasise the ever closer relation between national and international history.

(4) The conviction gained by teachers that it is their duty to combine in their teaching a regard for historic accuracy with a desire for international co-operation. This latter point calls for our special attention at a time when dictatorial governments are endeavouring to replace freedom in teaching by educational drill.

Educationists would betray their mission in permitting the contagion of an ideology of servitude and international distrust.

They must refuse to allow their teaching to become a form of propaganda or drill.

They must refuse to submit intelligence to the tyranny of State domination. They must affirm their determination to oppose war-like scares and to defend those highest possessions of Liberty and Peace which to-day are the greatest need of all mankind."

At the conclusion of M. Lapierre's address, the Chairman commended his able discourse and paid tribute to his spirit of internationalism.

Dr. G. P. Insh (Scotland), in opening the discussion, paid a tribute to the address of M. Lapierre, so penetrating in its analysis, so lucid in its exposition. The two points on which M. Lapierre had laid special emphasis were the problem of the approach to History in the primary school, and that of reconciling history, nurtured on national traditions, with an international outlook, and a spirit of international co-operation. For these purposes of international moments and for attractiveness of approach, Dr. Insh suggested that the problem of the subject-matter of the school history curriculum merited investigation. The political history which during the nineteenth century formed the staple of historical study in the schools, was gradually being replaced by the study of social history, i.e. the history of civilisation and this offered many attractions and advantages, not available under the older régime.

Dr. H. Adams (Executive, N.U.T.) said that a clear distinction must be made between the teaching of peace and propaganda. Efforts to inculcate propaganda would defeat one's object, peace. He did not believe in introducing political history until the last year of a child's school life,

when teaching might be given on the outlines of the rise of modern France, Germany or Italy. The history of civilisation in all countries proceeded much on the same lines, e.g. the Manorial System, and a knowledge of one country's development was generally of guidance in an understanding of the development of many.

Miss H. Cooke (Colchester, England) expressed appreciation of M. Lapierre's speech and of his excellent work at The Hague. She pleaded that we must consider history from the point of view of the child and not from the politician's or historian's view-point. If we swept away everything bearing on political controversy then we should help the child and ourselves. She agreed that Dr. Adams's was a logical way, but it had its pitfalls.

The discussion on this subject was closed at this point.

How Oral and Written Expression in Primary Schools can contribute to International Goodwill

Dorothy Matthews (Former Secretary, New Education Fellowship (English Section))

"One of the thoughts that springs first to mind in considering the question of international goodwill, is that of the differences of language. It must be clear to everyone that the more widely foreign languages are learnt, the more readily can the peoples of the world come to an understanding of each other. I believe there is a fundamental factor in this learning of languages to which in our education so far we have not given a great deal of prominence, a factor which concerns the free creative expression of the child, and later of the adult, in his or her own native language.

In forming harmonious personal relationships between members of the same nationality we find that one of the most important things is the ability to express as freely as possible our own thoughts and feelings and to find a way of entering with imaginative sympathy into the thoughts and feelings of others. In entering into harmonious relationships with

members of other nationalities, we need an extension of this imaginative sympathy to include not only those fundamental things in which all the peoples of the world are at one, but also those differences which particular nationality brings. When members of different nationalities approach each other in this spirit of imaginative sympathy the differences are then a cause of added interest and richness, so far from being a barrier they become something that draws us with a special sense of attraction to each other.

We adults of this generation for the most part probably had very little opportunity as children to find the real creative expression of ourselves through the written and the spoken word, but things are rapidly altering to-day and educationists are beginning to recognise that the early years are the most important of all for encouraging a free spontaneous utterance in both prose and poetry.

A good deal of misconception, I believe, exists about the spontaneous expression of the child through the artistic medium of language. We do not expect the child to develop his music or his painting without help and guidance, and in exactly the same way the child needs very special and highly-skilled help in developing his powers of self-expression through language. The teacher who wants to encourage her children to write creatively in prose and poetry must first of all be able to express her own feelings, thoughts and experiences with a sense of ease and joy in both prose and poetry. This, of course, is possible for all who are willing to open themselves to universal sympathies, to face experience in an attitude of humility and confidence and to make a simple beginning in sharing through the written and the spoken word.

Which of us has not at some time or other passed through a patch of painful and bewildering experience caused perhaps through the twisting up of our relationships, with our fellows. We know that at such a time we have needed more than anything else the sure knowledge that behind and below the disharmony, as it were, there lay that abundant harmony, that fundamental unity, which we could ultimately reach if we maintained this confidence and step by step moved towards its realisation. This experience of difficulty between individuals is not so very different from the tangling up of the threads of international relationship which so easily threatens to become hostility and even war.

Here are two poems written by teachers who were evidently

interpreting some such painful and difficult experience, with which is contrasted in each case the realisation of peace and harmony.

THIS IS PEACE

This is Peace,
Far-stretching quiet,
The night sky
Dark tree-shapes,
And millions of stars.

O heart
Crying out in the darkness,
Voice of pain
And conflict,
Cease to cry,
And listen
To this utter Peace.

THY WORD IS PEACE

Thy Word twangs,
Twists
Discordant strings,
Thy pain, O Lord,
Upon me.

Thy Word rings,
Sings,
On tuned strings,
Thy Peace, O Lord !
Thy Peace,
Within me.

(Quoted in 'The Growth of the Writer,' a new book of mine not yet published, which deals with the whole question of the development of writing and of the writer.)

Not only do poems like these help those who are passing through difficult phases of experience because they convey a feeling of strength and confidence, but the writing of them helps also to bring the writer himself or herself a stage further towards the realisation of the harmony and peace he or she wishes to attain.

In encouraging children to express their thoughts, feelings and experiences, the teacher will need to be able to enter with a quick and easy imaginative sympathy into the child's attitude and point of view. The following two poems were written by teachers who for the time being have themselves

Where does the money all come from ?
 It's magic, of course, that I know,
 And how does old Santa Claus get here
 From that far land, all frost and snow ?

Can the reindeer run over the water ?
 No, their load's much too heavy, I guess.
 I reckon they come on a liner,
 A big one, a special express.

When I grow up, I won't be a fireman,
 Though rushing to fires would be grand
 ? I'll be chief engineer on the liner
 That brings Santa Claus to this land.

(Quoted in my book, 'Poetry in the Making,' which deals
 with tendencies in modern poetry.)

The following poem was written by a teacher whose native language is German. In helping her with English the aim was just the same as it would have been had English been her native tongue, that is to find a free and full expression through the written and the spoken word. It happened that the lessons were by correspondence. She had read poems both aloud and to herself and had written me her thoughts about them as freely and naturally as possible. I then asked her to concentrate specially on the poem 'Moonlit Apples,' by Drinkwater, and after getting into the atmosphere created by this lovely poem to let her own thought and feeling take any direction that came in an original poem. It is interesting to see that in her poem the moonlight is bridging the waters that appear to divide this land from some other and uniting the writer with some other person.

WATER AND MOON

Water and moon,
 Moon and water,
 Deep, deep water.
 The moon is building a bridge
 Right across the water.
 And in this beautiful summer night
 We glide along
 Slowly and calmly,
 Stroke after stroke,
 Along the bridge,
 Till we have reached the moon,
 The moon.

Water and moon,
 Moon and water,
 Water is between you and me,
 Water is between you and him,
 Deep, deep water.
 And the moon is building her bridge.
 A long, glistening, silvery bridge.
 You see it,
 I see it.
 Why can't we step over and join ?

It is interesting to know that though this teacher had not previously written any poetry at all, either in English or German, after writing this English poem and one other she wrote quite spontaneously poems in German, which she said she certainly could not have written if she had not found the expression of herself in the English poems.

The following poem was written by a French teacher who had been asked to write her thoughts about the poem entitled 'Leisure,' by W. H. Davies. Her comments were in prose, but she was so carried away by the beauty of the experience of spring-time flowering she was describing, that she quite unconsciously wrote something so near to actual poetry that I arranged it in lines of free verse. It represents the joy of leisure days she had herself recently experienced.

What is life indeed if we have no time
 To caress the grey softness of the willow catkins
 When spring comes round ?
 No time to stand and hear
 The light-hearted notes of the thrush
 In the cool light of a *February morning* ?
 No time to stand and see
 Hovering over the snowdrop,
 The first golden bee,
 And, on the dancing daffodils,
 The pearls of the March shower ?
 No time to joy
 In the yellow riot of the lesser celandine
 In the grove at noon,
 And in the hush of night
 To listen to the restless rustle of boughs and twigs
 In the light of the 'visiting' moon ;
 No time to bask in the warmth of the young sun,
 staring at the drops of green dewy light
 Hanging from the branches of the lime-tree
 Just bursting into leaf ;
 No time to welcome the crystal-like cry of the tree-frog after the
 storm,

who wrote the poems will be of interest to such a group as this, so I am giving them in each case.

As I looked at my garden,
I saw the roses gently swaying with the wind.
'They nodded to me, as if to say,
'We are enjoying ourselves to-day.'

(8 years, 3 months.)

One day as the postman was going round a corner,
His hat blew off.
'Ha—ha—ha,' said the wind.
But the postman said, 'My hat.'

(8 years, 5 months.)

When I go to bed at night
I hear the wind.
In its flight it sounds whoo—whoo—whoo !
And I go—oo ! oo !

I put my fingers in my ears,
Up into the sky the wind goes,
'To where, nobody knows.

(8 years, 5 months.)

The trees in the woodland glen
Look lovely with their opening buds.
A gentle wind is blowing through.
The daffodils are dancing too.

(8 years, 8 months.)

The following poems were written by children of eleven to thirteen years in a Welsh school, and were the first written by this group.

A STREAMLET

Bubbling and streaming,
Babbling and gleaming,
'The silvery streamlet flows.
Along the river bank it goes
And never stops and never slows.

Laughing and beaming,
Singing and dreaming
'The silvery streamlet rushes,
Along, along, along it goes
And never stops and never slows.

(11 years, 11 months.)

The following is another selection of poems written in school during a poetry writing period by seven and eight year olds.

WISHING

I wish I could go to China
And sail in the big sea blue
Sail over the great big ocean.
That's what I'd like to do.

Then I'd buy a lovely costume
And look so bright and gay.
And I'd prowl about the country.
That's what I'd do all the day.

(8 years, 8 months.)

MY ROSES

I have roses
In my garden
Pink, red and white,
And when the sun
Shines on them
What a lovely sight.

(7 years, 3 months.)

SNOW TIME IN THE GARDEN

When I see the snow is falling
When I wake up in the morning,
I am glad to throw the snow,
Make a snow man in the garden.

(7 years, 10 months.)

A CHRISTMAS CAROL

Hear the carol singers
Far, far away ;
Hear the tiny voices
From the snowy mountains
Far away,
Tiny voices, tiny voices.

(8 years, 5 months.)

(The last three poems are quoted in 'The Growth of the Writer'.)

'A Christmas Carol' was composed by the child for a puppet play with an Italian setting which the children were producing, and a melody was written for it by my colleague Miss Florence Surfleet.

In the writing of poems it seems to bring the best results if the writer, whether child or adult, is encouraged first of all to express himself in free verse (that is with irregular lines and without regular rhyme) and to lead on from that in whatever direction seems to fit best the individual inspiration. It will be noticed that some of the poems are in free verse and some in metric pattern with rhyme. I have dealt fully with this question of free verse in my book, 'Poetry in the Making.'

The writing and singing of simple melodies to one's own and other poems is very helpful in finding a deeper appreciation of poetry and an increased power both of reading it expressively and of writing it. The melodies are written in sol-fa and are not intended to have any accompaniment. The time, emphasis and feeling come out of the poem which the melody interprets, so that the melody itself is expressed only by the sol-fa symbols. As music is so closely associated with poetry and is acknowledged to be a universal language, some reference to that side of the work seems in place in such a subject as this. You may like to hear the melody to 'A Christmas Carol.' I will sing first of all the words of the poem and then only the sol-fa.

A CHRISTMAS CAROL

Key D Major

Hear the carol singers
s m f r d d

Far far away,
r d t, d

Hear the tiny voices
s l sm r d

From the snowy mountains
r m f s m d

Far away,
d t, d

Tiny voices, tiny voices.
ls m r s m r d

(Melody quoted in 'The Growth of the Writer.')

You may also like to hear another melody composed by Miss Surfleet to one of her poems for children in her collection,

composed by little children lack this dramatic element unless the teacher understands from the writing of her own little plays how the quality of movement belongs to the play form. The simplest activities and events of everyday life form the best starting-off point, since they all contain dramatic possibilities and are well within the child's power of understanding. From that the scope can readily be widened.

Story-writing the teacher can also weave in with history, geography and literature, and in the same way as with the plays the teacher must herself be able to write convincing stories suitable both for adults and for children.

The writing of stories and plays for children represents a more advanced stage in the teacher's own self-expression work than the writing of stories and plays for adults, though this comes with surprise to some people who have thought that the writing of things for children is a far simpler and casier accomplishment.

Before children are able to write imaginative stories (some come to it more readily than others) they can begin by writing little accounts of their games, their pets, their toys, and half-imaginative themes—stories centring round an occupation such as that of a postman, milkman, and so on. In order that imaginative stories shall be convincing and true to life when they are undertaken, it is important that they be tested by and related to real life situations. Fairy stories should not have too important a place in children's writings.

We will conclude with the following little account of a favourite game written by a boy of eight, which gives, it seems to me, in a very concise form, the swift transition from peace to war, due to the passing over of the attitude from that of harmony and satisfaction to one of disharmony and hostility. The child has written more wisely than he knew, for he had shown that equality of armaments without permanent goodwill can avail nothing, and that it is the very presence of armaments at all that makes war possible.

MY FAVOURITE GAME

We get the two forts out and our two ships. We have so many soldiers and so many sailors each. We are friends at first. Then something goes wrong. There is a battle between the English and the Germans. We call it 'The Great War.'

The Chairman thanked Miss Matthews for her delightful paper, and called upon Miss J. A. Callard (Executive, N.U.T.) to open the discussion.

Miss Callard said : " Miss Matthews has very ably put forward what may seem to many of us a new idea for the promotion of international goodwill and anything that can hasten it is very much appreciated.

Differences in language are largely responsible for our difficulties. Failure to understand what the other man says and means so often causes trouble, therefore these new ideas on the subject are very welcome.

From my own experience I have found that Welsh people are usually better linguists than monoglots, because a Welshman has to know two languages thoroughly. Welsh is frequently his home language, the one in which he learns to lisp ; as he learns to talk he gets what he wants through expression in that language, but when he gets into the primary school and mixes with other children he finds the necessity for another language, English. This after two or three years is introduced and taught, so that when he leaves school at fourteen he has a very fair mastery of two languages, a vastly superior attainment, to my mind, than that of a monoglot child leaving at the same age with only a fair mastery of one. This is done so naturally that there is practically no trouble from that self-consciousness from which the average monoglot suffers. To get rid of this bugbear of self-consciousness, or better to prevent its existence should be one of our aims. I agree that one of the fundamentals to which we, as primary teachers, have to get down to is better expression from children of a primary age.

First of all to get them to talk. There is too great an urge to get the child down to the printed word before he can express himself orally. Plenty of oral expression in the early years is absolutely essential, this will do much to develop that original thought which is so necessary if we want to give our children the power to acquire the sympathetic imagination which will appreciate the other man's point of view whatever may be his nationality. Thus he will be on the road to Miss Matthews' ideal, the power of producing original prose and poetry. We must use a child's experiences, it is from these he learns before attaining school age, and there is apparently no method about the way he learns them.

His mother sings him to sleep with lullabies, examples of the maternal instinct which have been handed down through the ages, and are found in every language. Each country has its slumber song. From the North Pole to the South, from China to Labrador, you will find the equivalent to the ' Dustman,' the ' Sandman,' the ' Cradle in the

'Tree-top,' or 'Daddy's gone to buy a rabbit skin to wrap his Baby Bunting in' theme. In our Welsh language there is a lullaby which most Welsh mothers know, 'Myfi sy'n-magu'r baban.' The mother sings while rocking the cradle, of her daily task, of the responsibility which is hers, of the hope that the child will grow up to be a great and a good man. The words which so beautifully express the hopes and fears are known to every mother in the world. As the child gets a little older the mother tells him the old folk tales, a practice which can be carried on in school, and we should emphasise when teaching these old songs and tales (and there are many translations from most languages now) the universal experiences which make all human beings 'kin.'

Folk lore can be used with greater effect than any other material to bring out one of the greatest truths that education can convey, the essential unity of all civilisation, and the fascinating diversity of each country's contribution to the main fabric. Folk tales bring out in the most charming and interesting fashion the essential likeness in all people of whatever race, and make children feel instantly in sympathy with other nationalities. They tell the stories and express the emotions common to all, the youngest son who has to go out into the world to make his own fortune, the child with the step-mother, fear of and friendship with animals, hero worship, love of adventure and feats of strength and endurance.

It is very fascinating to see how many central ideas are common to numbers of countries, the father who in return for his release from captivity promises to give up the first thing he sees on his return home, and sees his daughter; the pure fool (Parsifal, Galahad), the human changed into an animal, the Scottish Laidly worm, the Chinese fox, the Russian bear and the French and German were-wolf, Beauty and the Beast, and Hans Andersen's swans. The same things come out in the folk songs. In most of these stories, too, you go back to the days when the present physical differences between countries were not so accentuated. Forests, wooden houses, wells, wolves in the forests, these formed the environment for scores of tales from one country after another. In the same way, the characters are the most primitive and independent of all, farmers, fishers, hunters, millers. You get next to nothing of all the distribution of labour or the specialisation which now divides one country from another so strongly; yet at the same time you get in

the most likeable form the differences between nations, the friendly Russian bear, the mysterious Chinese fox who can take human form, but who can never lose his tail, the mermaids and mermen of sea-faring countries, England and Scandinavia, the holy cow of hot and waterless countries. These are a few of the ways through which a child can grasp something of the character of another people through the practical things of daily life and should lead up to a desire as he gets older to acquire a knowledge of one or more language.

Teachers can make a very effective contribution to international goodwill by pointing out that all children, Esquimaux or Japanese, black or white, yellow or red, like and have always liked the same sort of tales and games and songs, and in this way show that our world is, after all, a very small one.

We must realise our great responsibility in the impressions which we make on our children, for without impression we cannot get that full expression for which Miss Matthews pleads. If our children are not receptive they cannot be articulate."

Miss Hickley (Eddington, England) endorsed Miss Callard's view on bi-lingualism, but questioned whether the child's work was creative when specimen poems had been studied by it previous to its own efforts.

Miss Matthews, in response, said that with the exercise of great care the child did not imitate, but gathered the necessary atmosphere.

Mr. Gifford (Scarborough, England) suggested that public schools should offer temporary posts to teachers educated in and teaching in primary schools.

Mr. Penlington (Chairman) asked Miss Matthews how her methods worked out in respect of prose. He had tried development of style by submitting models, but plagiarism resulted despite variety. From his experience he did not agree with the introduction of models first; he believed in showing children after their attempts what others had achieved. Miss Matthews agreed with Mr. Penlington saying she opposed imitation of models.

This concluded the discussion. Mr. H. N. Penlington was unanimously re-elected Chairman, and Mr. A. Granville Prior was unanimously appointed Secretary of the Section.

The Chairman, having expressed his gratitude to all who had made the session a success, declared the session closed.

GEOGRAPHY SECTION

Chairman : DR. J. RUSSELL SMITH (Columbia University, New York City).

Vice-Chairman : MISS A. E. PHILLIPS (Avery Hill Training College, London).

Secretary : MISS ERNA GRASSMUCK (Head, Geography Department, State Teachers' College, Indiana, Penn.; Chairman, Educational Relations Committee, National Council of Geography Teachers).

Place of Meeting : The Playhouse.

TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST, 9.30 A.M. TO 12.30 P.M. ; 2.0 P.M.
TO 4.30 P.M.

General Topic : " GEOGRAPHIC EDUCATION FOR THE NEW AGE."

Cumulative Learnings in Geographic Education

Elizabeth D. Zachari (Geography Department, Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Kentucky)

" The major objective of geographic education is not the acquisition of information, but the ability to think geographically. Teachers should strive to develop in their students those abilities which make ' purposeful thinkers ' and ' successful doers, ' and not to create ' animated gazetteers. ' Human gazetteers cluttered the courts of Portugal and Spain in the fifteenth century, but Columbus was the purposeful thinker and the successful doer in the realm of geographic exploration.

The purpose of this paper is to show :

(1) Several types of geographic relationships or understandings made possible for students through geographic learnings gained in field experiences.

(2) A cycle of field excursions, chosen from the offerings of the local environment, which present opportunities for the discovery and establishment of certain geographic learnings essential at different levels.

The Spirit of Adventure

Since the field is the geographer's laboratory, let us consider field experiences as a co-operative educational enterprise in which students and teachers become explorers.

'Something hidden. Go and find it.
Go and look behind the Ranges.
. . . Lost and waiting for you. Go!'

The teacher's belief in the fundamental value of worth while first-hand contacts in the field should be an integral part of her educational creed. Excellent professional training in geography may have contributed greatly to such an attitude. If, in addition, intelligent travel has been her share, both types of contacts have produced an intensified, ever increasing desire for new fields of personal exploration. A teacher so charged with enthusiasm will surmount overwhelming obstacles to have her students experience similar contacts.

An American school geography published in 1894, has on its title page the sketch of a group of children with their teacher looking at the physical lay of the land, presumably in their immediate neighbourhood. Each child is standing in a rigid position, one little girl having her hands locked behind her back, while the teacher points with her right hand to the river and the hills in the distance. The passivity of this group, observing what they are told to see in their physical environment, is far removed from the investigative activities pursued by children of the same age to-day. A compass, note-books for observations and questions, maps showing highway routes, contour lines and various other kinds of information, and possibly, a kodak may well be considered part of the equipment of such a group of children.

Initial Field Experiences

The work in the early elementary grades has no subject-matter divisions. The activities of these years have as their chief concern :

(1) Experiencing the art of living happily together largely through social contacts at home and at school.

(2) Orientation in the activities of their community chiefly through viewing its life of work and play. Some familiarity with the natural and cultural factors of their locality is a likely outcome.

(3) Development of the fundamental tools of learning—the ability to read and write, and the use of simple arithmetical computation.

The place of purposeful activities and observation, well directed by the teacher, in such a programme is obvious. By means of excursions girls and boys may become aware that their community is a busy workshop in which people are trying to meet the practical needs of the group. They learn something of how their community keeps house. Some of the questions which may arise are: 'Where does the community get its water supply, its electric power, its coal, and some of its food? Who are the workers who help with its housekeeping?'

At this level, also, there is a dawning consciousness of the life pattern of the community as a whole. The following selection suggests the nucleus of such a concept:

Our Present Drainage System

'At last there was a man in Chicago who said he could lift her out of the swamps. His name was Mr. Chesborough. He was an engineer. He was going to put a big brick sewer below the streets with little sewers into it. The large brick sewer went into the river. laughed at Chicago because it would take years rt. It meant piling up dirt five, six, and seven high over most of the city. It was impossible. but it will make a clean dry city," answered Mr. Chesborough and his friends. "And you can make basements and cellars which so far have never been used in Chicago." After a while the people got together their courage. Masons were put to work building the sewers. At that time the river was being straightened. This straightening would make it easier for boats to pass. The dirt from the river was going to be used for filling in vacant lots and streets. Since then we have tried many new kinds of pavements. Always trying to make a less noisy and cleaner city. Just think, the people didn't think it would improve the city like that. Look at us now. Look at the outer drive, and where the

World's Fair is going to be. It is going to be on land that has to be built out in the lake.*

Serious map study should not be introduced before the fourth grade, when such simple map concepts as those listed are introduced :

- (1) Reading a picture into the map sign.
- (2) Recognition of physical forms as expressed on the map through colour, or form, or both.
- (3) Ability to see a map as a picture ; as a means of recording their own travel records.
- (4) Skill in seeing the life activities which the sign for a city represents on a map.

However, frequently the beginnings of such understandings have their origin in these early grades. The following selections taken from stories of visits to the Woolworth Building, written by two groups of New York children with the help of their teachers show the beginnings of map consciousness :

' We looked down over the balcony railing and saw a park far below. It looked very much like a map from where we were. We saw the East River on one side, and the harbour, where they meet. We could see the Brooklyn and Manhattan bridges, and some of us found the Fulton Fish Market on the East River.'†

' We looked down and saw the people and they were so small we felt that we could pick them up, but they were too far down. We saw the "elevated." The tracks looked like threads. The cars looked like match-boxes moving by magic. Trolley cars looked long and slim. We saw the Singer Building. It was red with a green top. We saw the World Building with a golden dome. The Municipal Building has a street running under it. We could hardly see the Metropolitan Tower. It was all in the smoke and we could hardly see the tower. It looked as if it were hanging from the clouds. The other buildings looked like our doll houses. We felt like giants that could step over the houses.

We saw the Statue of Liberty way off like a shadow. We could see the head and shoulders. We saw the boats. A big three-funnel boat was moving up the

* "Experience in English Composition and Literature" (Volume I, Grades I-VIII; Chicago; Francis W. Parker School, 1932), 54-55.

† Florence E. Matthews and Rebecca J. Coffin. "City Stories," pages 42-43.

to the location of a filling station and storage warehouse directly west of the school were illuminating and stimulating. Situated as they were at the convergence of two arterial highways, it was interesting to see the children's interpretations in the following :

'The refining company showed sense in locating at that corner. Just think of how many cars pass that corner in one day.'

'But I can't see why the storage plant located there. Several men are needed to guide the driver in getting the huge vans out of the driveway. It always means that traffic is delayed.'

'The location is good for their sign on the roof. Broadway is wide. You can see the sign all the way from Fourth Street (the centre of the Retail District).'

(3) To develop further ability in the interpretation of map symbols for an urban area and the concept of the city as a whole, it was decided to view the layout of Metropolitan Louisville from the roof of another down-town office building. For several members of the group, the excursion was the first of its kind. Experience has shown that if a trip of this type is the first of its kind taken, or if the child has never been aloft in an airplane, a few minutes are usually required for orientation. At first, the children called attention to familiar details. Then many questions were asked and arguments were numerous. Following this, the sense of 'awayness' or remoteness came to the front, and the children were ready for the guidance of the teacher. A member of the group suggested that the map of Metropolitan Louisville be spread on the roof, placing the north on the map to the true north. The map was referred to constantly.

That map interpretation of the highest order was being participated in is evidenced by the following comments :

'You cannot see anything but trees and a few high buildings there. Isn't that the Highlands where we live? (Map consulted.) It ought to be ; that is east.'

'That (pointing west) is the way you go to Shawnee Park. A whole lot of people live near there. Most of the people live where you see many trees.'

'Look at the smoke. I can see tall smoke stacks. The factories must be in that section of the city.'

river. Another three-funnel boat was at one of the docks. We could see way across the river where the ships in the navy yards looked like shadows. Perhaps there were a million boats on the river. We saw the tug boats and sail-boats and motor boats and ferry boats and all kind of boats. The water looked like a sheet of grey glass. When we were way up on the Woolworth Tower, we saw the ships, the sky, the buildings, the people, street cars, trains and everything, and they all looked grey.*

Though educators concede generally that children before the age of eight are more interested in activities of people than in natural factors of the environment, the study of the larger land forms of a local area frequently yield simple, yet direct geographic relationships. In the Louisville area suggested land forms would include :

- (1) The river and related forms such as island, falls, rapids, creek, flood plain.
- (2) Small hill-like formations, knobs.
- (3) Limestone deposits.

The suggestions offered are not to be considered sections of a core unit, Home Geography, studied in detail and provided for at fifth grade level. Rather, the observations are simple aspects of the geography of the local environment rich in experiences. Each community furnishes its own wealth of trips and adventures.

Field Experiences in the Intermediate Grades

The geography programme for the intermediate grades of American schools is remarkably flexible. Most curricula of progressive systems suggest numerous units from which teachers and children have the privilege of selecting those of special interest. In many private schools the courses of study are built as the work progresses. The general plan of work for these grades includes :

- (1) The systematic study of geography which is usually initiated in the fourth grade. In this year the children gain their first concept of the world by studying how the people of certain regions live, work and play in relation to their natural environment. Regions

* Charles W. Finley and James S. Tippet. "Field Work," page 21.

selected for study are those in which life activities are directly and simply related to a few outstanding natural conditions.

(2) The fifth grade is concerned chiefly with the adjustments man is making to his environment in the United States and in neighbouring countries of North America. The emphasis is on various kinds of work and the types of places in which different work is carried on. The simple understandings, which can be grasped at this level, are developed in relation to the geographic personality of human use regions of a relatively simple type.

(3) Most of the time in the sixth grade is given to the study of Europe and Asia, with the political unit as the organizing core. The human use regions of the country studied are employed to develop the major understanding of the country.

The question is : What field experiences available in the local community may directly contribute to the geographical relationships stressed in such a programme ?

The use of the map as a tool is one of the attainments for the fourth grade level. This includes the ability to read a map and also to use it as a medium for recording travel experiences. Among the various concepts developed, that of a city is one of the most important.

A group of Louisville children was interested in the pictures and signs for Bagdad which they found in one of their geography books. Several airplane views of Bagdad taken at different elevations caused special comment. The following story was told by one child of the group who had flown many times :

‘ When I went up in an airplane, I could tell what kinds of roofs the houses of Louisville had. This was when we first went up. Higher and higher we went. Then all the houses looked alike. The Ohio River was like a ribbon. Indiana is on the other side of the Ohio River. If I didn’t know that New Albany and Jeffersonville are in Indiana, I might have guessed that part of Louisville was on the other side of the Ohio River. Isn’t Bagdad on both banks of the Tigris River ? ’

'You can see the wharf at Jeffersonville.'

'Look at the canal. I didn't think it would look that much like the lines on the map.'

'Doesn't it seem queer to be looking down on Fourth Street (the centre of retail activity in Louisville). How slowly the traffic seems to move. It's like a great canyon. I wonder if the Grand Canyon is deeper than that.'

'I feel as if I were above the earth and watching how people in our city live.'

'I think this is more interesting than going up in an airplane (the child who had had the experience); you have time to see more and wonder about it.' (He did not succeed in convincing his classmates of this fact.)

Finally, one member of the class suggested that they explore different parts of our city. He added: 'We think there are factories in the south-western section of Louisville. Perhaps we are right. If we are, I'd like to know what is manufactured in these factories.' To this remark a girl replied, 'I would like to know three things: (1) What is made in these factories; (2) Why are these products made in Louisville, and (3) Why were the factories built where they are?' In this case, the enthusiastic response of the group led to a study of Louisville.

Mounting pictures on a city map was suggested by one boy. His explanation follows: 'We can take the pictures with our kodak. Then we can place the pictures on the map where they belong. I believe that is the best way we can make our map look like the picture we see from this roof.'

(4) From the list of the leading products made in Louisville and the values of manufactures, the children concluded not only that Louisville is an important manufacturing centre, but also that diversity of manufacturing interests rather than specialisation in specific fields characterises its activities. Of special interest was the presence of four relatively large refineries in the city. The children knew of pipe line distribution of oil from fields to centres of refining. They ventured the conclusion that Louisville refineries were fed by pipe lines from eastern Kentucky and mid-continental fields. Personal interviews with authorities of the various companies, maps showing the network of pipe lines in the United States, and reading text, proved the fallacy of their surmise. Great was the surprise and interest

of the class when its members discovered all crude oil came to Louisville by tank car via various rail lines and by river barge. The reasons for relatively large river receipts and the methods used in unloading barges, especially in relation to the fluctuating stages of river level made interesting points for investigation and study.

A second question of importance frequently asked by teachers of the intermediate grades is, 'How can the local environment be used in these grades to contribute to an understanding of geographic adjustments found in remote regions of the world?'

In the study of Europe, the children of the sixth grade had read that the Rhine was an arterial highway of trade. This statement called for extensive reading and stimulated much class discussion as to (1) the type of cargo carried; (2) the tonnage; (3) the direction of movement of freight; and (4) improvements for transportation facilities. In the course of the study, one of the boys compared the Rhine to the Ohio River. Other members of the group thought there were no bases for comparison. 'I think there are. Let's prove it,' was the challenging remark.

This pupil assignment led to an investigation of the following:

1. The report of the War Department relative to the traffic tonnage of the Louisville and Portland Canal.

2. The study of the canalisation scheme of the Ohio which resulted in the nine foot stage.

3. An analysis of the types of cargoes handled by the packet line which plies daily between Louisville and Cincinnati.

4. The type of freight arriving and clearing at Louisville Wharf.

5. The types of boats used in river trade. For example, the advantages of the small stern-wheeler 'tramp service' over the scheduled packet.

6. Unloading facilities on the Louisville water front.

7. The reasons for the maintenance of the United States Coast Guard Service at the Falls of the Ohio.

The conclusion, when finally reached, linked an intensive reading programme with field experiences.

The field of the intermediate grades is primarily virgin soil. Little is to be replaced because nothing has been destroyed. To the teachers of these grades is given the joy of creating and building correct attitudes and understandings toward life activities and the peoples of the world. Theirs is the pleasure of initiating and developing techniques of work and skills in using geographic tools. A vision of this task is at once inspiring because of its possibilities and challenging because of its scope. Field work in the great laboratory of the out-of-doors, if wisely used in these grades, will become a technique, which will carry the adventure-loving children farther afield and help to stimulate greater interest in units of work than ever before.

Field Experiences in the Junior and Senior High Schools

The general plan of work for junior and senior high schools, followed here for the purposes of discussion, is that outlined in the Thirty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, entitled 'The Teaching of Geography.' Briefly, it includes understandings of the major regions of the world. This embraces a world view in which the relation of the world political pattern, world population pattern, world work pattern, world trade pattern, and natural environment, including world resources is seen. At the eighth or ninth grade level, our country, state and community are viewed in their geographic relations to the world.

'Nations as Neighbours' was the theme chosen by an eight grade in geography for the term. Among other phases this study included the interdependence of the United States in trade relations, and Louisville's part in the trade of our nation. The class decided to begin the study with Louisville.

Through the work of five committees, each having a student chairman and a secretary, a work pattern map of Louisville was made. Manufacturing areas, the principal wholesale section, retail districts, railroad lines and switching yards were carefully plotted on the maps of each group. When all information was transferred to a large wall-size map of Louisville, a land utilisation map of the city complete in almost every detail was the result.

Experiences encountered on mapping excursions, questions resulting from interviews, or queries arising from newspaper articles and civic publications, supplied many leads for further

study and investigation. Some of the most interesting topics were :

1. Special groups of industries, as, for example, the wood products group, the paint industry, and the tobacco products manufacturers.
2. Miscellaneous types of industries such as the manufacture of tin foil.
3. Specific industries or plants of specialised requirements, such as size of yard, or loft-factory type of building.
4. Rail pattern of Louisville in relation to manufacturing districts and the natural environment.

Louisville's part in the mesh of world trade was startling to the children. Among the chief imports listed and their sources are : woods from tropical forests ; kauri gum from Australia ; tung oil from China ; tin from Malaya ; asphalt from Trinidad, and Turkish tobacco. Soft winter wheat flour made in Louisville's mills is shipped to South America ; candles to Italy ; enamelled bath tubs and brass ware and cigarettes to many parts of the world, and tobacco for blending purpose to continental Europe.

The question was raised : ' How does the Federal Government help to facilitate trade ? ' Forestry conservation was the outgrowth of the visit to the wood-preserving products plant. A city forestry preserve in the environs of Louisville was visited by some of the group. Others had visited several state parks in southern Indiana. The forestry programme in relation to the new Mammoth Cave National Park was outlined. Another evidence of government co-operation in the community was the work recently done in the Ohio river as a part of the canalisation scheme to insure a channel depth for navigation at all seasons and to help reduce the intensity of floods.

The study of weather conditions, utilising the first-hand experience of visiting the local weather bureau, a sub-station of the United States Weather Bureau proved profitable. The study of the local weather and the relation of the Bureau to the work of man was organized around the following topics :

- (a) Shipment of fruit, vegetables and livestock with Louisville as a terminal or as a junction point.

(b) Factors relative to the navigation of the Ohio river, including records of channel depth, warnings of approaching ice floes and floods.

(c) Co-operation of weather bureau with the United States Life Guard Station.

The unit of work culminated in an assembly programme. It was decided that the Louisville phase of the unit was the one in which the school would be most interested. Maps made in the field, or representing a summary of field activities, and a display of kodak pictures illustrating what was seen in the field proved to be among the most interesting of materials presented. The maps made illustrated the following points: (1) the metropolitan area of Louisville; (2) Louisville as a rail centre; and (3) the chief markets area of the United States and the world accessible to Louisville.

The type of work suggested in this unit, rich in pupil activity, appeals greatly to girls and boys of high school age.

The Teacher-Training Programme

Field experience in a teacher training programme should be of three types: (1) those which awaken, in a prospective teacher, the possibilities of the wealth of the local environment for field experiences; (2) those which develop such abilities in field work as lead to sound geographic interpretation and conclusions, and (3) those in which the student teacher through observation and some participation under skilful leadership has the opportunity of seeing the technique of conducting a field trip with children.

The technique of handling a field trip with children includes (1) the preparation for the trip; (2) the methods used in managing a group in the field, and (3) the check and leads which follow as an outgrowth from such experiences.

Though types of preparation are as varied as are the trips, some practical suggestions are offered.

1. The teacher covers the field first if she has not already done so.

2. Study, including extensive reading programme and a sorting of ideas.

3. The preparation of an outline in which points to be observed are listed.

4. Map study showing destination of trip and shortest possible route.

5. Graph study and the interpretation of statistical material which may raise questions that can only be answered in the field.

6. The physical preparation in which the trip is arranged for means of transportation are provided and the choice of members to make trip is made, *i.e.* whether it is planned for the individual, the class, or a small group.

On the trip the teacher is in the background. She is there only when she is needed. Most of her work is done prior to the trip, and in the definite summarising at certain junctures in the process of the excursion and at the conclusion of the whole unit. The manner of conducting excursions is as varied as the preparations suggested. Never should the trip prove to be a blind alley—an end in itself. Instead, it should form a focal point from which many avenues may lead to further adventures in the field. New lines of reading should be suggested by what students have observed. An awakened consciousness of their own powers in the art of investigation and research should be realised.

Wider Horizons

Many of our students have known the delight of actual travel. For the most of them, however, their dream of extensive journeys will lack realisation. A world of beauty and one teeming with geography lies at their door. Trails from the school-room to this world are constantly being blazed by the master teacher. It is she who develops the desire which impels the exploration of communities and country-sides in reality or vicariously. New experiences, varied contacts, broader outlooks—we see the people at work and play in the land in which they live.

‘ Out of your cage
Come out of your cage
And take your soul on a pilgrimage ! ’ ”

Urban Growth and the Movement of Population in the United States

Dr. Eugene Van Cleef (Department of Geography,
Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio)

“ Trade centres are dynamic elements expressive of the world’s cultural and economic structure. They are an index

to the level of a nation's civilisation. As such, trade centres may be viewed as organisms of society rooted in the earth, reflecting different moods, varying in intensity of activity and reacting sensitively to both internal and external influences.

These organisms are not merely passive mechanical phenomena contributing to a geometric pattern spread out upon the earth's surface, but rather active, aggressive, biological centres which originate ideas, which initiate movements to take advantage of nature's offerings or to adjust themselves to nature's limitations.

In this discussion we use the term *trade centre* in place of city because it is much more inclusive and is a term not circumscribed by arbitrary population limits or by governmental restriction. By trade centre we understand any aggregation of people who derive such advantages as co-operative effort may yield. This definition applies equally well to the expressions 'metropolitan city' or 'geographical city.'

Like the life within them, centres of trade activity are born, develop in varying degree and face the possibility of extinction. No trade centre may rest upon its reputation and long maintain its position in the competitive struggle. Ancient centres swept into commanding positions, as did Tyre under the momentum of the Phœnician Empire, or as Rome rose to power under the stimulus of a succession of Latin bravados. But Tyre has since disappeared and Rome no longer plays the significant part of an earlier day in the world's exchanges. In the United States we have witnessed a succession of pioneer lumber, coal and resort centres rise to positions of notice only subsequently to be marked by mere skeletons of their former selves or to have disappeared entirely. That such instability is well recognised becomes evident when we scan the public press. Civic, industrial bureaux, chambers of commerce, groups of public-spirited citizens and other organisations advertise the qualities of their trade centres to millions of readers in the hope that some of them may be enticed away from their present location in favour of a supposedly better centre.

All of this change has led to attempts at systematic organisation of our communities and, equally important, to the anticipation of their growth. It has forced business leaders to take stock of their respective localities, and this in turn has awakened many to the consciousness of the possibilities of helping cities grow instead of allowing them to drift along

for better or for worse as the fate of natural environment might dictate. A few chambers of commerce at the opening of this century pioneered in the field of forcing trade centre growth. The idea that people could be enticed to take up an abode in a given city seemed to fascinate the minds of some men and the experiment was tried. For many reasons, it has met with both success and failure, mostly failure, and has raised the question as to whether the objective in trade centre growth should be more inhabitants or a better community.

That the rural population has steadily moved toward trade centres during the half century prior to 1880 is now common knowledge. A ratio of nearly three to one in 1880 in favour of the rural parts was reduced approximately to a ratio of one to one by 1920.

The end of the decade 1930-40 may show a different picture, since immigration from foreign regions has practically ceased and the severe economic depression at the opening of the period has reversed the migratory movement within the nation. In 1931 there was a 'net migration to the farms of over 200,000, and in 1932 a net migration to farms of over half a million.' But in 1933, the movement again shifted in favour of the trade centres, about 227,000 more going from farm to trade centre than in the reverse direction. This may have been due to government employment relief in the trade centres, local forms of relief and also the surrender of farm mortgages forcing farmers to the trade centres for a livelihood. In given localities there were deviations from the general trend.

All of the increase in total urban population since 1880 cannot be ascribed to migration from the rural districts. A considerable part of the urban increase arose from immigration by aliens; another may be ascribed to the inclusion of centres once classified as rural, that is, having less than 2,500 persons, but which have now passed that figure and are therefore classified as urban.

In some of the larger trade centres such as Chicago, Cleveland and New York City, many negroes from the south have added to the population, a movement begun during the war and also encouraged since then by industries endeavouring to break strikes among white men. Lastly, the 'lure' of the city has been an ever-present attraction irresistible among many living on farms and non-farm persons living in villages.

In 1890 5·8 per cent. of the entire population lived in our three largest trade centres, while to-day these centres attract 10 per cent. In 1930 fourteen trade centres had a population of 500,000 or more, and housed 17·1 per cent. of the total population. The number of centres with a population of 100,000 or more increased from 28 in 1890 to 93 in 1930, representing a gain of nearly 232 per cent. as compared with an increase in population for the country as a whole in the same period of slightly less than 100 per cent. and an increase in the nation's rural population of only slightly more than 32 per cent.

The growth of a trade centre is something more than merely an increase in numerical figures. It involves the areal distribution of that increase and the potential sources of supply of population. The outward or centrifugal migration, which is constantly taking place, suggests changes in boundary lines, in shapes of trade centres as a whole and in growth of area. The evidence of a former strong expansive influence may be observed on the outskirts of many communities. The staked-out plots of land, the toppling isolated street name standards, the grass-covered cracked and broken cement side-walks and street pavements in many communities of the United States tell the tale of a realtor's boom in the decade 1920-30, which encouraged the areal expansion of population and which collapsed just as the decade closed.

All the evidence of this horizontal growth is not depressing. Many new residential areas have been successes. They have been artistically landscaped and suggest the strong attraction of the suburban or 'rural' habitat for the urban resident. The post-war period up to 1930 will no doubt go down in history as the 'own your home' era, the results of which have been both detrimental and beneficial to the public welfare. It was a period of great unrest, with people moving from the centre to the periphery, from the periphery to the suburb, from suburb to the periphery and from remote centres to remote centres. Although the United States was not unique in experiencing post-war building acceleration and subsequent cessation, yet the devastating effects were probably felt nowhere else to the same extent.

This constant flux of population, with its threat to migrate from large trade centres or its willingness to immigrate, has challenged the understanding of many chambers of commerce and other civic organisations interested in capitalising the movement. Data relative to their experiences, with special

reference to the sensitivity of trade centre population shifts to community advertising, is especially illuminating.

An investigation of the rates of growth of 100 trade centres, some of which advertised and some of which did not during the decade from 1910 to 1920, conducted by R. M. Brown and continued by me through the next decade to 1930, reveals some interesting data. The selection of the trade centres was based upon a minimum increase of population from 1910 to 1920 of 37.5 per cent., whereas the average rate of increase for all cities in the United States was 24.5 per cent. Time will not permit of a complete citation of the statistics involved. One trade centre in the northern part of the country favourably located for trade, with a population of 78,466 in 1910, quite aggressive in its advertising, attained a population of 98,917 in 1920, and 101,463 in 1930. It seems fair to expect a progressive centre to maintain at least the average pace of the country and, equally logical, if advertising 'pays,' to anticipate a rate of increase higher than the average. But this centre showed an increase of only 28 per cent. in the 20-year period as compared with a 63.5 per cent. gain for the urban population of the entire country.

Another trade centre, located just west of the Appalachian Highland, quite proud of its assets, according to its considerable literature, had a population in 1910 totalling 66,525 and in 1930 of 113,967, representing a gain of 71 per cent., somewhat greater than the average for the country. In this instance advertising seems to have 'paid.'

A third centre in the far west, well situated for trade development, accessible to the sea, counted 207,214 citizens in 1910, and in 1930 312,815, a gain of about 45 per cent., still under the national average. Yet probably no centre has been more enthusiastic in its desire to enlighten the nation as to its many advantages both as a tourist centre and a permanent place of residence.

These illustrations of centres seeking growth through advertising are too few from which to draw final generalised conclusions. So many interlocking factors may function either in stimulating or retarding population increases that an unqualified statement relative to the effectiveness of advertising for growth is unwise. However, the fact that so many trade centres which experienced rapid growth, particularly those with specialised industry, have engaged in little or no advertising, while many of slow growth have expended large sums for publicity, raises a serious challenge to the

of suburban growth has occurred at the expense of the central trade centre, then the larger the latter, the larger the source of supply for the suburb. On the other hand, suburban growth, like that of urban growth, is sometimes due in part to annexations, or consolidations and in consequence suburbs enlarging under such circumstances may easily show as great rates of increase when located close to major trade centres of moderate size as when located near those in the group with the larger population figures. Another source of population has been the rural districts. Many farmers and village residents upon migrating to urban centres locate in the suburbs where they still may enjoy something of the rural or village atmosphere and yet indulge in the activities of the major centre.

The phenomenon of rapid suburban growth is closely associated with urban areal expansion. As the population of the suburb increases, and also that of the outlying districts of the political trade centre increases, the two units approach each other areally. Then the question arises, shall they be consolidated? This question in turn raises two others, namely, shall the suburb maintain its political autonomy but enjoy the economic advantages of proximity to the major trade centre, or shall it surrender its independence, subject itself to a different political regime and lose much of its individuality?

While the latter two questions are those in the minds of the suburbanites, the citizens of the major centre are also confronted with important questions. Shall additional area be included within the trade centre limits at the risk of increased taxation? Will the larger centre become less wieldy and in consequence lead to certain losses due to a scattering of energies and attentions? Can the zoning and planning system now in effect be made to accommodate the larger area without undue injury?

These questions involve in the last analysis the welfare of both the 'urb.' and the suburb. The ramifications are many as they affect political organisation, industrial concentration versus decentralisation, distribution of residential sites, retail business competition and other elements.

Some trade centres recognising the futility of haphazard methods of the past are turning over a new leaf and approaching scientifically the problem of industrial and population growth. They are making careful natural resource surveys in their respective hinterlands, analysing the physical structure of their urban patterns with respect to business distribution,

efficient transportation, distribution of recreation facilities, satisfactory residential areas, and other elements which contribute to an ideal community. They are beginning to recognise a tendency for the population of the nation to become somewhat fixed in distribution with only a slight shuttle movement between urban and rural centres, and they are accepting the predictions of students of demography that the growth of population in the United States may become static as early as 1950.

The question then of immediate moment is not so much one treating with the mere size of population within urban boundaries but rather one which concerns quality. Those who have the responsibility for developing our trade centres are becoming more concerned than ever with refinements in the distribution of the nation's population and are more aware of the futility of endeavouring to make their communities better by the mere enticement of a migrating unsettled population, for that surplus of unattached population of other years is rapidly disappearing while living conditions for the attached population is attaining a standardised level. In the United States we have almost reached the status of Western Europe with respect to the fixity of urban and rural population, and recognition of this fact is of the utmost importance to those concerned with both the areal and population growths of our trade centres. Geography teachers can contribute much towards training our future citizens to meet these urban problems intelligently."

An International Bibliography of Geographical Teaching Materials

Erna Gräsmuck (Indiana, Pennsylvania)

"If truly geographic pictures and other sensory aids were carefully selected and functionally used during the study of each country, in the school class-rooms throughout the world, there would be greater assurance of world understanding and interest in the growing generation than could be developed through any other medium.

True enough, folks in adjacent countries may have some differing ways of life, but we should endeavour to discover what elements of the natural environment help to explain these differences. Not merely should *pictures* be used in studying geography, but rather *only those* pictures which

present accurate and balanced concepts of each region. A political region consists both of man and of nature. Both kinds of pictures are needed. Also, though folks may differ in some ways, there are many other ways in which they are similar. Appreciations of our resemblances to other folks may strengthen our ability and desire to feel that all men are brothers. Therefore, pictures illustrating similarities should be used and not merely those stressing differences.

Assuming that the desire to use balanced collections of pictures exists, the associated need is to have an appropriate map on which to localise these views or land and water-scapes. Not just any map, but the very maps that will aid in understanding why the given conditions shown in the pictures exist there. And yet other learning tools are needed to increase the intensity as well as breadth of geographical learnings—specimens, word matter, statistics.

Accepting the advisability of having a variety of carefully selected geographic learning tools, the alert teacher has been discouraged by the absence of any international bibliography of sources from which such aids could be obtained.

The challenge of compiling such a bibliography has been accepted and an international committee is at work. Truly, a huge undertaking but with courage undaunted, the interested workers are formulating plans which will be successful in so far as teachers and publishers in every region of the globe will co-operate in the undertaking. Time has no limit in such a venture. The work must be constantly kept up-to-date. A call is issued to every man, woman, and child throughout the entire world to send references (1) to individual pictures ; (2) to collections of modern sketches and paintings, as well as photographic prints, and films ; to publishers and individuals and any other sources from which pictures and other sensory aids that portray fairly facts and conditions of nature in relation to man in any country, can be obtained. Address : Chairman, International Bibliography of Geographic Materials, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania."

The Use of the Home Region in Teaching Geography

Dr. Mary Sanders (Lecturer in Geography, Furzedown Training College, London)

" The Home Region is the natural starting place for teaching geography to little children. Observational work gives

examples of relief, climate, etc., which serve to introduce Physical Geography while observations of industries, traffic, houses, etc., give an introduction to Human Geography. In later study in the school the Home Region may be studied again, and its different aspects linked into a whole by that connection of facts, which is the chief educative value of geography teaching. At the same time, when other countries are studied in school, the Home Region gives the starting point, for it gives facts known from observation which can be contrasted and compared with those taught about other lands, and so lead to a realisation of facts beyond actual experience.

Towards the end of the school course, a school journey may apply the same procedure to another small region of the Home Land, that has been applied to the Home Region, so that the pupil has two points of reference for studying countries farther afield.

Later in the life of the pupil the Home Region may be made the subject of a piece of exhaustive research which is put into appropriate form, the maps, diagrams, descriptions, etc., being gathered into a whole to form a thesis. The making of such a thesis is a very excellent piece of education, for it combines observation in field work, with practical work indoors, both to be parts of a coherent whole, the organisation of which and its expression is very valuable training."

Dr. Sanders had brought with her a considerable amount of material to illustrate her arguments for the value of teaching home geography. Her first specimens were weather diaries, kept for a short period at a time by seven-year-olds. On these they recorded (with drawings or cut-outs of umbrellas and beaming suns) the weather conditions of morning and afternoon.

At this stage, too, preparation was begun for later map-making. Each child was asked to draw her desk on a small slip of paper. "But it isn't big enough—I can't get it on to that," was the natural reaction. They were told to make it a small desk, to shrink it and fit it in (a first lesson in scale measurement). Then they stuck their desks each with its occupant's name, on to a wall sheet on which the slip representing the teacher's desk had already been put into position. The next step was to show them a plan of the school-rooms with their own room marked in colour. With this clue the children joyfully identified the other parts of the relation to their own room.

Slightly more formal weather records were kept by these children. A wall sheet was plotted out for a week's record. Each morning and afternoon was represented by a large blue or yellow square, for rain or sunshine, and in a third column, headed "Specimens Brought," pictorial record was made of the germination of seeds observed in the class-room.

A day and night chart was made for the year, kept up by the teacher during school holidays. The most interesting features of this chart were the dual division of the year into calendar months, and by outstanding days in the child's experience, Empire Day, birthday, April Fool's Day, etc. Similarly each day was divided on the graph by the "breaks" recognised by the child—getting up time, breakfast, school, break, etc.

Early work preparatory to teaching the seasonal changes was taken in several ways. In a class-room where a window faced due south, an incidental record was kept of the sun's progress across the squares of the panes during three months, January, March and May, which were sunny enough to permit frequent observation and comparison.

Dr. Sanders stressed the difficulty of connecting up observation of the height of the sun in the heavens with the length of the shadow cast. Shadow work might begin simply with observation of the varying length of the shadow cast by a netball post in the playground. This work could be followed in the next year by marking out a chalked dial on the playground. Another difficult geographical conception, the altitude of the sun, was brought home to the children by a simple device. The shadow and altitude of the sun were observed at fixed hours by the manipulation of a pencil to throw a shadow on to a central point on a board which was fitted with an outer circle of sticks, of the same height. A series of graphs was built up.

Temperature work was carried out, using the school thermometer; with the teacher's small, inexpensive frost-thermometer for nights. Dr. Sanders stimulated the children's interest by training them to be temperature-conscious. While their first Maximum-Minimum graph was being kept, they guessed the temperature each morning when they arrived at school—and became remarkably accurate in their perceptions of variation. After the chart had been kept for part of September and October (a very "up and down affair") the class worked out the average temperature, and realised "what a lying thing an average can be."

From this they went on to keep a record of average monthly temperatures over a year. The year's curve for Vladivostok, plotted on the same graph, showed in a striking way the great range of temperatures in a continental climate in similar latitude.

The eleven-year-olds did extremely interesting map-work. The school district on a simplified six-inch Ordnance map was divided up into thirty-six squares. Each child was given one square and a written list of questions, e.g. What are the names of the streets in your square? Do any railways run through it? Are there any commons or open spaces? What trees grow in it? What sort of houses are there? To prevent over-crowding, the information acquired was built up into *five* maps covering the whole district under many aspects, transport, housing, industries, etc. The class made a collection of photographs and listed such information as could not be recorded in the map, e.g. where the goods in the shops came from.

The investigation did not stop at the limits of the district. A stream which ran through it was paced in three expeditions up to its earlier course in the country and down to the Thames, where world-traffic was seen passing on the river. At this stage the progressive discovery of relations between the immediate environment and the greater world was notable.

One of the most difficult problems of map-making, contouring, was tackled in field-work carried out on irregular ground, an open common in the neighbourhood. The method by which the coloured contour map was built up was described as follows :—

The first expedition on the common was with the whole class. Each girl was provided with a hectographed copy of the square mile next westward to the one surrounding the school, which included the whole of the common, from the six-inch Ordnance Survey, and a set of questions to be answered from their observations on the common. Half the class walked up the north side and half the south side, making notes as they went. The two parties met at the top of the first part, and explored the upper part together, walking along the boundary of the London district marked by boundary posts and stones.

Wherever a small definite rise was encountered a stop was made to estimate it in terms of four feet—the height of the measuring post taken for the purpose. At the next lesson in school these measurements were plotted on squared

paper, and their connection with measuring heights shown, i.e. a rise of 4 feet in 23 feet, in 16 feet, in 10 feet, etc.

The next piece of work was carried out by ten girls in two sets of five, each set provided with a measuring post marked in feet, and a surveyor's tape, with a note-book to record results. A girl whose eyes were exactly 4 feet above the ground was chosen in each set to be post bearer. Another girl was the "walker" who had to walk straight ahead till her heels were on a level with the post bearer's eyes, at which she was stopped by a shout. Two girls then measured the distance walked and the fifth in each group wrote down the results. In this way the distance and rise between the bench-marks at the bottom of the common and half-way up was checked and found to be roughly 60 feet, i.e. fifteen times a height of 4 feet was recorded. The two sets worked about 20 feet apart and checked one another's results.

Had time allowed this could have been extended to cover the whole common and a model made showing where each 4 feet rise was measured.

Instead it was thought wise to walk over the given contour lines on the 6-inch map, and estimate where the intervening ones at 50 feet could be inserted. The contour map which was made was an interesting and valuable piece of work.

Dr. Sanders stressed throughout her exposition the importance of not carrying any piece of work too far at one time. Her method was to stimulate the interest of the class, to put them in a position to find out for themselves what most interested them, to leave a good deal to their own initiative and leave the subject while the interest was still fresh; but at such a stage that sound foundation had been laid for an advance at a later period. She emphasised, too, the great importance of leading the child to think geographically, scientifically, in terms of cause and effect—with this proviso that it is *not* true to say that "any reason is better than no reason." To permit unsound generalisation from insufficient evidence is bad mental training; to teach the child the value of suspended judgment in the absence of evidence is to foster a truly scientific habit of thought.

Land Utilisation Maps of Great Britain

Col. G. F. Close

"It will be remembered that, rather more than two years ago, Dr. Dudley Stamp, the Director of the Land Utilisation

Survey, read a paper at an afternoon meeting of this Society on the work of the Survey. He therein stated that 'the primary purpose of the Survey is to make a complete record over the whole of Britain of the uses to which the land is put at the present time.' In the interesting discussion which followed the reading of the paper several important points were brought out. For instance, Dr. Stamp told us that the original time allowed for the survey had been five years, but that such excellent progress had been made that it had been found possible to reduce that estimate. In the Second Annual Report on the survey, which was dated 1st February, 1933, it appeared that at that date there were only four counties in the whole of Great Britain in which work had not been started, that 88 per cent. of the country was being fully covered, and that over 90 per cent. of the work in hand was organised by the county Directors of Education.

In fact, the end of the field work of the survey is now in sight and the mean date of it cannot be far removed from January, 1932. It is, therefore, practically certain that one of the main conditions of an efficient record of this kind has been fulfilled, namely the completion of the field work within the space of a very short term of years.

Early in this year two specimen maps were published by the Ordnance Survey showing, in colour, the cartographical results of the survey. The maps are on the scale of 1 inch to the mile. The colours which show the utilisation of the land are overprinted on the 1-inch sheets of the Popular Edition, so that each sheet, in the normal case, covers an area of 486 square miles. The Popular Edition lends itself very well to this kind of overprinting, and no change seems to have been made in the printing of the ground work of the map, except that the minor roads are not coloured; over this familiar 1-inch map the special information is printed in six colours. The two sheets chosen, are the first examples of the results of this remarkable undertaking, as 1-inch Sheet No. 114, Windsor, which covers the area to the south-west of London; and Sheet 142, Isle of Wight, which embraces the southern part of the New Forest and Portsmouth. The sheets are well chosen as specimens; in the one we have a crowded urban and suburban region, in the other a largely unspoiled country area.

The general effect is clear and most instructive. Six colours have been used for the overprinting; dark green for forest and woodland; light green for meadowland and

It is really surprising how well the little patches of colour, representing small fields, have come down on the map. If we take an acre as about 70 yards square, such a square on the 1-inch scale would be shown by a square of almost exactly one-twenty-fifth of an inch side. Squares of this size can be distinguished without difficulty, and, of course, the vast majority of fields are larger than this. To print such small patches *requires good register on a large sheet*, but this we expect, and find, in a map printed by the Ordnance Survey.

And now for a brief consideration of the uses to which these important sheets will be put. First, as has been mentioned above, they form a more complete kind of topographical map than any which has existed hitherto. The addition of so much extra information has, of course, the effect of somewhat obscuring the representation of the hill features; but these are still on the map, and can be read with a little care. There is no reason why the new map should not be of good service to the public at large; the picture which it gives of the country is a fuller one than that which is given by ordinary topographical maps. Secondly the new series forms a kind of Domesday Map of the land of Great Britain. It is a record which will be of immense value in the future. Historians will have an authoritative document when they come to discuss the uses to which the land of this country was put in 1932. And, thirdly, subsequent surveys of a similar kind will, when compared with this pioneer survey, show, with exactness, the details of the changes which the land has undergone during the interval. We shall not have to depend only upon statistics, sometimes so difficult to interpret, but shall have definite information as to any alteration which may have taken place in each parcel of ground.

We are returning to the sane point of view that the land is a country's greatest asset, and that if a country does not make the best use of this asset it is not in a healthy state. Great changes in our economic condition are more than likely in the next generation or two. We may have to be satisfied with a humbler share of the world's trade, and, in consequence, may have to be content with a smaller population. Indeed there are abundant signs of a diminution of the population at no distant date. We may hope for a less numerous but healthier race, less densely crowded in this narrow island, less industrialised, more self-sufficient. Agriculture will become relatively more important in the life

of the nation, and the land utilisation survey will be part of the apparatus of development.

In order that, in the future, full use may be made of these maps, it is desirable that two steps should be taken. A certain number of copies of each sheet should be printed on specially durable paper, and should be carefully protected from damp and light, so that they may be available for reference, in a perfect state, generations hence. And the plates of the 1-inch sheets, which form the background of the map, should be preserved for printing from, in order to facilitate comparisons of the successive editions of the land utilisation survey."

Geography for the New Age

J. Fairgrieve (President of the Geographical Association, 1935)

"The following are merely notes but it is hoped that they will be suggestive. They have to do with the teaching of geography in school.

1. The Geography for the new age is *not a geography for examinations*. Under the influence of examinations geography in the last twenty years in England has improved in precision, but it has also become more of a routine job and less of an adventure; the children are shepherded along the narrow path that leads to the examination gate through which they are gently pushed. The wider objectives of the subject tend to be lost sight of in the narrower.

In the process of teaching for examinations the subject has become too logical in treatment and too economic in outlook and again we are losing sight of the wider objectives. One does not wish of course that the study should take no account of economic conditions nor be illogical, very far from it; but the insistence on a logical scientific attitude only is unsatisfactory for two reasons. In the first place, it is unscientific because it is too logical; it takes account normally only of the physical sciences and very largely omits the biological, and it is profoundly unscientific to omit some of the data of one's problem. A very simple example is that usually given of the formation of a delta; we are told that the material brought down by a river sinks to the bottom at the mouth of a river and forms a delta, but no sinking to the bottom will ever explain how a delta *rises above* the level

of the water ; the part played by vegetation is omitted from mention. This is a very simple case but the same kind of error is found in much geographical teaching in school.

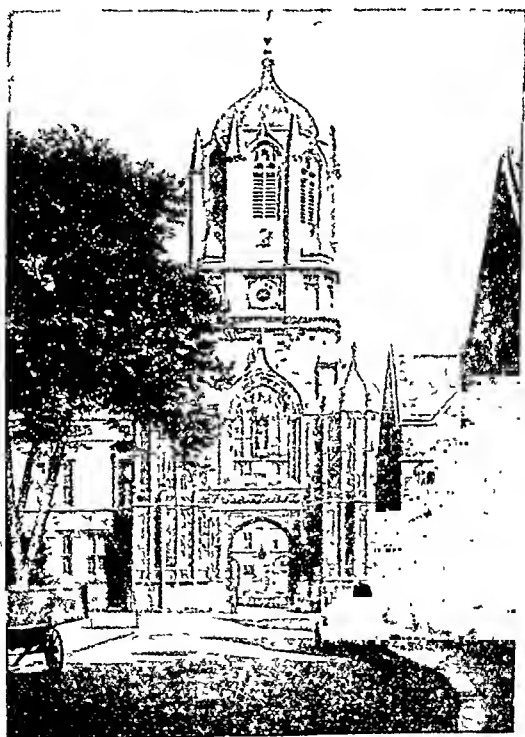
The work done in geography is unscientific also because very seldom does the study begin with observation ; it begins normally with some generalisation ; geography should begin at home because there particular things can be observed, and where particular things cannot be so easily observed the beginnings should be more dominantly pictorial than it is because pictures present the raw material more exactly than anything except the realities themselves.

2. And what is the *objective* ? As I see it the objective is to help citizens of each land to understand their own problems and those of other folk, not merely to know about them and not merely to understand how these problems arise, though that helps. As far as other people are concerned it means that one must *feel* what these other situations are as well as know about them, and this is not easy ; a vast amount of geography must be felt as well as known before it is of any value ; this of course cannot be taught as one teaches for an examination ; it is indeed doubtful whether many of such things as have to be felt should be mentioned at all in the classroom, but when all is said and done the real test of the value of geography teaching is whether or no these ideas and feelings 'naturally arise,' to quote a writer of over a century ago.

3. The *content* of the subject is obviously the world in some sense, though equally obviously it cannot be all about everything in the world ; in what sense it is the world depends on the stage of development of the group of pupils concerned ; the world for university students must be something different from the world of the senior school.

4. The *technique* and method of treatment of the subject-matter must also be adapted to the mentality and development of pupils of different ages ; it has to be remembered, though it is often forgotten, that 'idealism' and 'systematising' (including the desire for generalisation) are characteristics of the adolescent and *not* of earlier life ; much of school geography loses its effectiveness, its sense of adventure, because it presents generalisations and ideals too early ; geography must begin with particular observation not only because it is unscientific to do otherwise but because it is unpsychological. Later in school life, at adolescence, such early work bears fruit. It may be observed here that in the

United States the omission of geography to a large extent from the curriculum of the adolescent means that it is omitted just when it is possible to let ideals 'naturally arise' when sufficient preparation has been given. In Britain we tend to stultify results by inducing an examination complex."



[Photo Alden (Oxford)]

CHRIST CHURCH, OXFORD

West Entrance Gate (Cardinal Wolsey, A.D. 1525) and
'Tom' Tower (1682)

HEALTH SECTION

Chairman : DR. C. E. TURNER (Mass., Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass., U.S.A.)

Secretary : MISS S. L. JEANS (New York City).

Acting Secretary : MISS M. B. CROSS (Director of Junior Branch of British Red Cross Society).

Place of Meeting : The Carfax Assembly Rooms.

FIRST SESSION, MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST, 9.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF THE
HEALTH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

The Health of the School Child

Dr. F. G. Boüdreau (Chairman, Health Section of
League of Nations)

In urging the need for a close partnership between school and community hygiene, Dr. Boüdreau said :

“ We have found recently, and this is particularly true of the United States of America, that to measure health on mortality figures or the death rate is not a reliable method.

Much may be learned from the medical inspection of school children. A review of school health records reveals a lack of standardisation, which seriously detracts from their value as indices of community health.

The duty of the school is to produce as many healthy, understanding and sane citizens as possible.

School hygiene and community health authorities must work together.

By thorough, skilled and frequent medical examinations, the presence of physical defects may be ascertained. The use of proper methods will ensure prompt correction of these defects.

Such methods imply the participation of parents, teachers, doctors, school nurses and clinics in a smoothly-working system.

To be effective, education in hygiene requires the co-operation of the whole staff. It is not a subject which can be taught occasionally by the doctor or nurse; it must be taught by the teacher who has been trained to do so.

The community has a right to expect two results from health education. First, that the school child should have acquired sound habits of healthy living; second, that his mind should have been properly trained to deal with the health and social problems which have assumed such an important place in modern society.

It is generally conceded that the task of the school is to fit the child for citizenship. It follows that he should be able to understand the social problems of modern society, to analyse them nationally and to be able sensibly to discriminate between solutions offered by political parties and leaders.

If democracy is to survive the average citizen must be able sensibly and rationally to appraise the solutions offered by political organisations.

If he has been given a proper foundation of health instruction, his decisions will be in the main sound.

The health of modern society is measured by its ability to resist the appeal of the demagogue, to reject his unsound arguments.

I strongly advocate the provision of school meals and additional milk. Its wide extension would do much for health promotion."

The Promotion of the Health of School Children

Ishbel MacDonald (President, International Federation of Home and School)

"From personal experience, I would say that physical health is a great help in bringing about complete health, both physically and mentally. There must be thousands of children in this country and all over the world who are not physically fit to benefit from the education that is provided in the schools. If we have these children, who are unfit, what a waste there is of teachers' effort and of the educational system.

I think that schools could be more wisely staffed. I have heard teachers say they do not know if they are teachers, nurses or milkmen.

We must be careful not to let the child get too introspective about his health."

Speaking of the improvement in school buildings, Miss MacDonald advised: "Don't build too solid buildings; we mustn't assume that they will be acceptable in twenty years' time."

Referring to the problem of malnutrition, she considered it would be a great help to the doctor if he could have the whole family paraded before him at his inspection.

Although people to-day would often speak of the "good old days" when they had to sit in school with their clothes wet through, Miss MacDonald said she did not think they were pampering the present-day school-children by taking them to school in buses and giving them bicycles.

The people who spoke of the "good old days" were often creaking with rheumatism.

School Health Activities of the Junior Red Cross

Miss M. B. Cross (League of Red Cross Societies)

"I feel it a great privilege to have an opportunity of giving some account to this meeting of the use that is being made in schools, and practically throughout the world, of the Junior Red Cross and of the results obtained by teachers who are using it to supply the stimulus of a voluntary movement in connection with health education.

Health Education, or perhaps more properly health in education, is a late-comer in the school programme and the method of its introduction is still the subject of discussion and experiment. Experiment is the privilege of voluntary organisations. I have heard a Minister of the Crown say to the British Red Cross Society, 'It is for you to make experiments and for us to profit by them.'

I venture to think that the Junior Red Cross is one of the experiments by which education can profit and indeed is profiting through the practical results following the association of children with the work of the Red Cross for health and service to others. For it must be borne in mind that the Junior Red Cross is not a separate institution, but is an integral part of the National Red Cross Societies in the fifty

countries of its adoption and is taking an important part in its work as defined in the Covenant of the League of Nations in Article XXV—the promotion of health, the prevention of disease and the relief of suffering at all times.

The Junior Red Cross began as the parent branch began, because decent people everywhere wanted to do something to relieve the sufferings of war. During the Great War boys and girls in school were brought into the great and compassionate company of those who gave themselves to this end and contributed energetically to supplying comforts for the wounded and supplies for the distressed civilians, especially the children in the devastated areas. In certain Canadian rural schools, far removed from the scene of conflict, teachers noted the enthusiasm with which their children entered into the work for other children in the war countries and how the life of the school profited by this interest, how the outlook of the children was enlarged as contacts were established with countries now no longer pink and green patches on the map, but real places where there were real children to whom they were sending real gifts that they themselves had made, and from where they were receiving real letters in reply.

The fact that all this real interest was evoked through the Red Cross moved a teacher in Saskatchewan to write to the Canadian Red Cross to ask if children could be recognised as members and so the Junior Branch came into being.

The object of the Junior Red Cross is to encourage the habits of healthy living as a first step to the improvement of health and to develop a sense of responsibility in matters of health, not as an outside organisation with rules and regulations of its own, but by supplying an instrument that the teachers can use according to local circumstances and conditions to supply stimulus and to awake interest and initiative in alliance with the general life of the school.

We all recognise that in matters of health at any rate, instruction is not enough. We may *know*, but we do not necessarily *do*. The hygienic behaviour of grown-ups in the matter of say ventilation, of eating and drinking, not to mention the spread of infection is sufficient proof of that. Sir George Newman put the whole thing in a nutshell when he said, 'It is idle and redundant to teach people how and in what direction they should clean their teeth if they have no wish or desire to clean them at all.' In other words knowledge is not carried over into habit and practice unless it is made operative by good-will. It is this good-will and personal response that the Red Cross seeks to evoke when it

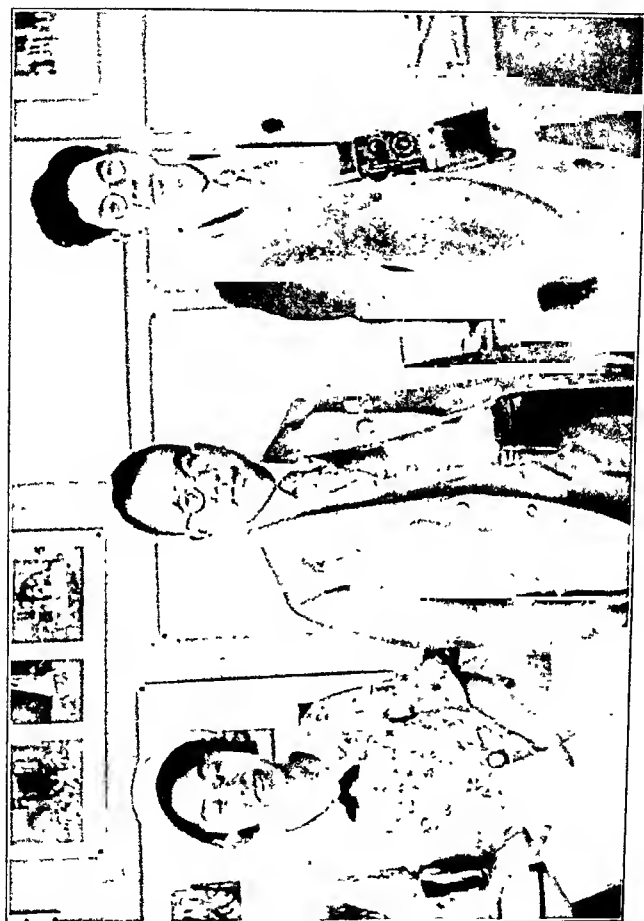
forms Junior Red Cross circles or groups, or links, to promote health and to help the sick and suffering, with the motto *Serve one Another*, and it is able to show the Junior branches as a chain of Service linking together the boys and girls of many lands.

The business of the Junior Red Cross is not to give formal teaching, but to encourage, to stimulate, to provide opportunity and example. In short, to introduce the cat-fish of voluntary response into the tank of instruction and admonition. And the same power that aroused the energy and interest of the Canadian children in those far off children in France and Belgium gives the movement its abiding vitality. Miss Jean Browne, the experienced Director of the Canadian Branch said recently, 'I am convinced it is through a sound and practical appeal to the emotions that the Junior Red Cross has become the power that it is among the young people of the world to-day.'

It appeals to the child seriously. Children are serious, very serious about the things that seem serious to them, which, of course, may not be the things that seem serious to us. The youngest child that sets his mind to a job is intensely serious about it. His views as to what is serious will vary as the levels of consciousness are reached; but at those levels he will give himself whole-heartedly to its prosecution. It is on this psychological fact that the Junior Red Cross is built up. Take the first Junior Activity, the practice of the habits of healthy living, habits which must be acquired before the reason can have much to say in the matter. Relatively few children can have these habits imposed on them by outside authority, say by a watchful Nannie. The Red Cross seeks to evoke the necessary stimulus from within through the imagination, through the child's love of action, through his nascent social sense, through his love of helping.

There are various devices, not altogether peculiar to the Red Cross, by which it is sometimes sought to give the child a start along the road to habit-making—forms of competition, or award, for example, the so-called Health Game, but these are recognised as being temporary and introductory expedients. What brings about the results that all teachers recognise, who are using the Junior Red Cross is the motive behind it, which is aided and abetted by the material provided by the National Societies, such as magazines, posters, health plays, and so on, and by the interest taken by the Senior Branch in the work of the children.

MORE DLEGATES FROM THE ORIENT



In the school itself another powerful influence comes into play—that of the group or team. Boys and girls, at any rate up to their early teens, love to ally themselves in leagues and loyalties, with their own rituals and obligations which they will observe with the utmost fidelity as long as they feel it is their own affair. To this natural impulse the Junior Red Cross gives expression, allying it to the most valuable because unconscious, training in social service.

In this connection the regular and frequent inspection is an invaluable stimulus, either when conducted by the teacher, or as part of the self-imposed routine of the group. Teachers often hesitate to trust this matter of inspection to the children themselves and it should probably only be admitted where it arises spontaneously, but it is well to recognise how loyal children will generally be to the element of self-government for which Junior Red Cross allows, and how excellent the result in self-discipline, as long as no more than a reasonable measure of responsibility is involved.

The result of these stimuli working together under the guidance of experienced teachers is very great. It is always a little difficult to assess results in a brief statement to which no more than a few examples out of a vast amount of evidence can be produced and I have thought it might be more helpful thus to deal with the principles underlying the Junior Red Cross than with details of organisation, which must vary in different types of school. But I cannot omit all mention of the range of the services to health that are undertaken with extraordinary gusto in the fifty countries where the schools are using the Red Cross programme. To take a few at random from our reports through the fascinating medium of the Junior Red Cross Journals, whose contents are made internationally available for schools through the League of Red Cross Societies. This from the head-mistress of an ancient foundation :—

‘ Since we have belonged to the Red Cross we have a clean school for the first time in history.’

As a tribute to the encouragement of cleanliness, or of attention to dental hygiene by a dentist :—

‘ Here come the Red Cross children, now I shan’t have any trouble.’

Or to ventilation by a traveller in middle Europe :—

‘ I always knew when there was Junior Red Cross in the village, because the windows were open.’

Or the provision of washing apparatus, basins, soap and so on, by the Juniors for their school, of individual towels—unfortunately rare—of first-aid boxes, of milk for necessitous children, of work done by Juniors in many countries to combat the mosquito, of Christmas trees laden with tooth-brushes.

I want to emphasise that these activities have all the saving grace of enthusiasm and are done with the personal conviction that they are something that it is worth while to do, whether it be the erection of a notice board to warn tourists that the bright stream is unfit to drink, as by boys in the Isle of Man, or the making of a sanitary well in an Indian village; or the practical exertions of Juniors on the Gold Coast, who are in their villages veritable missionaries of health, as their M.O.H. has said, or the young Bulgarian sanitarians who undertook to buy all the dead animals found in the village and duly returned a schedule so many cats, dogs, birds, and, I believe, on one occasion, a pig.

The impress of personal interest is unmistakable, from the raising of funds by their own exertions for recognised charities, hospitals, convalescent and fresh-air homes, and the like, to the individual and local acts of kindness and service, which are delightfully varied and apt, whether it be the sending of apples from the valleys by Swedish Juniors to those on the heights, where no fruits grow, the daily gift of a piece of wood from the children of a little Czech school, which provided firing throughout the winter for six families, or the weekly gift, continued for four years, of a little basket of groceries to a sick woman.

I shall have an opportunity of speaking more in detail of this international side on another occasion, but I cannot conclude without referring for a moment to its influence on health teaching. Health and Health Laws are the same all the world over. We all enjoy health alike and we all suffer the same toothache. Through the Junior Red Cross and its publications, its inter-school correspondence and exchanges, boys and girls are brought into touch in a simple and natural way and are acquainted with services to health and happiness in which they are all participating as members of the beneficent Red Cross, so that their own enterprises, however small, acquire a proper dignity and this belief in the value of their own efforts to promote health is laying the foundation upon which the future of better health will be built."

The Contribution of Mental Hygiene

Dr. H. Crichton-Miller (Founder and Hon. Senior Physician, Institute of Medical Psychology, London)

"The welfare of the school population reflects not only the physical but also the mental health of the community at large. For the psychological development of a healthy community the two principal requisites are freedom and a sense of social responsibility.

The first of these is a familiar theme. In the last half century education has undergone remarkable and beneficent changes. The health of school children in most civilised countries has wonderfully improved. This change has corresponded not merely to improved conditions of physical hygiene, but also to the new conceptions of freedom that permeate modern education. And how does this new freedom of the school child manifest itself? He is healthier because he is less afraid. Fear is on the one side, bondage and on the other side disease. It is bondage because it distorts the child's adaptation to natural experience or his social relationships or both. And fear begets compensatory aggression, and the aggressive child is neither co-operative nor contributive. Fear promotes a withdrawal from reality: fear hinders the child from making his adjustment to circumstance and environment. The fearful child is fit to meet only with triumph, but not with disaster; to experience health but not illness; to accept importance but not mediocrity. And unless education means character-building in this sense, it is nothing more than teaching. I suggest that you contemplate the fear reactions of the modern child to the onset of illness. A mother who herself lives in permanent fear of physical suffering transmits to the child her own narcissistic fears, now by the use of the thermometer and anon by committing him to bed. I do not suggest that children's health should be neglected, nor that early signs of disease should be ignored, but I maintain that many modern parents infect their children with an anticipation and a dread of illness that creates a life-long bondage.

And in other ways fear destroys freedom. For real health demands that the individual shall be at peace within himself and not constantly impelled to escape into some objective activity or distraction. Modern life is replete with opportunities of escape, from chewing-gum to morphia; from dancing to ocean cruises. Unless the mental health of the

next generation is superior to that of this generation, civilisation will resolve itself into an elaborate and incessant escape from reality. And the tragedy of the situation lies in the fact that escape is valued as freedom. Let us take as a simple example the problem of alcohol which is indeed closely bound up with the health of most civilised communities. The material freedom to drink alcohol is psychologically a small matter compared to the spiritual freedom not to require it. In one great country it was found necessary to abolish the freedom to obtain alcoholic beverages because the abuse of that freedom had assumed serious proportions. And this brings us to the other great requisite in psychological development—the sense of responsibility. It is clear that the health of the individual can be safeguarded in one of two ways—his freedom can be curtailed or he can be educated to safeguard it himself. We can educate children to live in dry territory or we can try to educate them to be sober citizens of a wet country. Educationists are apt to speak of freedom as if it were the reverse of prohibition. But in point of fact the only true freedom is that which implies liberty of choice and liberty of action.

There are many other directions in which these two factors of freedom and responsibility present themselves in problems of education and health. Take, for example, the common cold. There are some schools where it is definitely established that a child suffering from a cold is a source of infection and cannot be admitted until he has recovered. There are teachers who have good reason to suspect the reality of certain colds. There are parents who have their children excused for trifling symptoms and who do not hesitate to take the invalid to the pictures to relieve the tedium of the enforced holiday. Now a child brought up under such conditions will never learn to use freedom, nor can he acquire a due sense of social responsibility. He infers that his cold is a menace to the health of others; yet he knows that his parents will ignore this and take him to the cinema if he pleads for it. And the child who received from his parents a lax idea of social responsibility in regard to infection is not likely to be the young man who will worry himself unduly over the propagation of more serious infections that continue to curse civilisation.

I submit, then, that all new theory in education, and particularly all that offers enlarged freedom for the child, should be judged in practice by the measure in which the child develops a sense of social responsibility. In matters

of physical health, perhaps more than in others, we can gauge the child's acceptance or rejection of his inalienable burden of responsibility. To accept such responsibility involves the conception of self-discipline. The child who has developed no power of self-discipline must remain an instinctive-driven creature. He may or may not be creative, adventurous, or independent, but without self-discipline he is incapable of carrying out any ideal of social responsibility that he may accept in theory. Now the stewardship of physical health assumes in every generation more serious import. Whereas our forefathers lived under conditions that were hygienic only because they were natural, to-day we live under conditions which demand foresight and effort to maintain personal fitness. The line of least resistance in modern civilisation leads to physical deterioration. It is only necessary to mention sedentary occupations to realise that education has long accepted the idea of compulsory exercise as a necessity. But now in certain highly civilised communities the principle of compulsory physical training for adults has been accepted. This signifies that education has *so far failed to instil in young people sufficient self-discipline to keep themselves fit without coercion.*

We, therefore, come back, as we are always bound to do, to the inescapable choice—the citizen must curtail his own liberty or the state must do so. The social efficiency which is represented by individual fitness must be assured; the conditions of modern life do not in themselves promote such fitness; if the individual leaves school without having developed an adequate sense of stewardship, the community must see to it that he keeps himself fit. Therefore, the onus of responsibility for social liberty lies ultimately with parents and teachers. A generation may arise which is so infatuated with the inadequate concept of self-expression that it resists all claims of self-discipline and evades social discipline whenever it can. Or else a generation may reach maturity so weary of authority, so hungry for self-expression, so embittered by school discipline that when it can emancipate itself, it casts off all ideas of personal responsibility. In either case, education has failed. Whether by too much freedom or too much discipline, youth has reached maturity unfit for the stewardship of health. Perhaps we may say that in either case the fault lies in a wrong emphasis on freedom or discipline and in an imperfect presentation of the ideal of trusteeship which young people are naturally prone to reject as inappropriate to their age.

The curtailments of liberty which have been imposed upon the citizens of many lands since the war concern, in many instances, problems of health. The necessity for social coercion in these and other matters reflects the failure of the individual citizen to display a sufficient sense of social responsibility and to practise proportionate self-discipline. In so far as this is the case the situation reflects a failure in the total educational system, and as such we see that the mental health of the community to-day may be measured by the physical health and by the social freedom of the next generation."

The Educator's Responsibility for Child Health

Dr. C. E. Turner (Professor of Biology and Public Health, Massachusetts Institute of Technology)

"The healthful rearing of the young is a primary concern of all mankind. Around this activity centre many of the greatest joys and responsibilities of life. This process lies at the basis of social organisation. From protozoa to primates and from primitive man to present civilisation advances in biological or social evolution have been reflected in the more intelligent care of the young.

Education and health are the two feet upon which the human biped advances as an individual and as a species, toward a fuller, happier and richer life. For no children anywhere in the world does anyone wish ill-health. Upon the physical, mental and emotional health of the children of the world will depend in no small measure the progress of the human race, the branches of which are being brought daily into closer and closer relationships.

We meet here, as workers in the field of child health. Within this field there are no national boundaries. The best that each of us can do for the children with whom we are privileged to work is to the advantage of all. Let us exchange experiences and suggestions in this spirit.

We are beginning these meetings with the recognition that many agencies are concerned with child health. The four international agencies represented on this programme reflect the important interest in the health of the child to be found in every country. The first, the League of Nations, represents the organised health agencies of governments. This

Section of the W.F.E.A. has long been in contact with the Health Section of the League and we deeply appreciate its splendid contribution to the public health. The second agency, the International Federation of Home and School, represents the parental interest in the health of the child. The third is the League of Red Cross Societies, that great humanitarian agency which represents not only adult leadership in health and service, but also a membership of fifteen millions of the pupils themselves. This Section is happy in a continuing, cordial and co-operative relationship with each of these important bodies. The fourth international agency, the World Federation itself, represents the educational profession of the world in the recognition of health as a primary objective.

Three inescapable and inevitable responsibilities for the health of pupils rest upon the schools everywhere. The first is the provision of hygienic working conditions for the child. These include the provision of a sanitary environment and a programme of work which provides a healthful daily regimen. The second responsibility involves administrative provision for the proper functioning of suitable health services within the school, aided by the understanding and intelligent co-operation of the entire corps of teachers. The third responsibility is that for maintaining an organized programme of training and instruction and for the development, thereby, of the behaviour, attitudes and the knowledge conducive to physical, mental and emotional health.

Items one and two are administrative problems of the greatest importance, many phases of which are considered in the technical discussions of these meetings. With your permission the speaker will confine himself to the discussion of the third item, health education, which is the concern of every educator and which colours to some extent our approach to general education.

Every tribe or group or nation has a standard of health culture which is reflected in its mode of living and in its use or disuse of scientific medicine, both preventive and curative. This health culture, whatever its quality may be, is passed on from one generation to another. We do not refer here to medical science itself, but rather to the mode of living of the people, their habits, their attitudes towards diseases. The child gathers his health attitudes and practices from all his experiences, but like other elements of racial experience and knowledge, these are passed on in civilized countries in part through organized education.

Here is involved the inescapable responsibility of the educator for disease prevention, for hygiene may be preventive as well as medicine and sanitation. May I illustrate my meaning from the field of industrial hygiene? Some years ago, the workers in match factories were dying a horrible death from phosphorus poisoning. Medical service for them was of the utmost importance. The real solution of the problem came, however, not from the medical treatment of those who were poisoned, but from the chemists who developed a new method of making matches without the use of yellow phosphorus. Many industrial diseases have disappeared through changes in the methods of manufacture and the working habits of the employees.

Similarly from time to time new knowledge enables us to eliminate diseases through a change in our mode of living. Before our knowledge of the disease transmission of yellow fever, soldiers in the tropics who had been in contact with the disease left their supposedly infected clothes in one tent, and without clothing, ran through the grass to another tent, where they donned completely fresh habiliments. Obviously, this was the best possible method for getting bitten by the yellow fever mosquito. Citrus fruit was added to the diet of sailors and scurvy disappeared. Some primitive people have excellent teeth, and science is nearly ready to prescribe a dietary programme which will make possible this benefit for all mankind. Fish oils and sunlight take a place in daily hygiene and rickets disappears.

The point is that there are two steps in all of these developments. The discovery of the knowledge and its popularisation. Someone has said that the investigator advances knowledge, the interpreter advances progress. The investigator knows all the facts in a limited field, but often he is not the best person to undertake interpretation. The interpreter understands the knowledge of the people in many fields and how it may best be supplemented with the new information at hand. History reveals that civilisation advances rather directly in proportion to the degree with which the interpreter passes on to the people the contributions of the investigator.

The world-wide advancement in health education toward which the W.F.E.A. has been able to make some slight contribution was inevitable. Public health is using education increasingly as a tool. General education is turning toward the education of the whole child. The school is to the child the source of authority. Many of us have found that it was

no longer difficult to get our children to bed on time when they entered school if, upon entering school, they found that an early bed-time was expected and made a topic for the morning report. The school brings to the child the force of group psychology, the force of public opinion. Youth is the time of habit-formation. The school reaches the whole population and society has the right to expect that it will support the health standards of the best homes and supply children from poorer homes, in so far as possible, with those needed standards which the home has failed to provide.

Study and experience in school health and health education have demonstrated that present health practices are poor, that inclination and environment tend to pull the child away from hygienic living, and that health training is a fundamental and effective safeguard. We know that habits of living affect the health of the child, and we have shown that habits can be improved to the point of actual, demonstrable health improvement through the programme of health education in schools, and that this programme may be developed with the cordial approval of the home and to the benefit rather than to the injury of general education. The specific problems of health and disease vary in different countries, but our responsibilities as educators are essentially the same.

1. We must seek from the hygienist the factual basis of our health programme and the health practices which we should seek to develop.

2. It is then the task of the professional educator to adapt, develop and put into operation a programme of training and instruction which is educationally sound.

3. We cannot bring to the child a series of lectures from the physician, the nurse, the nutritionist, the psychiatrist and the physical educator. The programme must function through the class-room teacher who must first be adequately trained in both subject-matter and method.

4. Gradation of activities must be provided, so that we may begin with a training programme for the little child, and gradually supply information on the basis of his increasing knowledge and interests until we release him from the secondary school with an intelligent programme of individual behaviour rather than with a set of simple health rules.

5. We must make medical and nursing services successful educational experiences for the child.

6. We must organise the routine activities of the school to make them contribute to health training.

7. We must incorporate health in other subjects of instruction.

8. We must go even further and develop adequate measurements of attitudes, behaviour and health intelligence at different age levels, in order that we may have knowledge of our progress and proof of the value of our efforts.

9. We must continue our association with our colleagues in the public health field and make our programme responsive and practical by adapting it to the health activities, both official and unofficial, with which our communities are from time to time specially concerned.

The technical problems in health and in education are the subject of our detailed consideration during these meetings. We are concerned with medical service, school sanitation, disease control, nutrition, physical activities, rest, relaxation, posture, safety, education for parenthood, and particularly with the development of educational methods for health training. Progress towards the solution of these problems is our *raison d'être*."

SECOND SESSION, TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST, 10 A.M.—1.0 P.M.

Nutritional Needs in regard to Climate and Race

Professor V. H. Mottram (Professor of Physiology,
University of London)

"In Great Britain there should be no difficulty in obtaining a satisfactory diet. The climate, which has been a jest among the inhabitants ever since the days of Tacitus, is such that there is sufficient moisture in the air and soil to promote the production of admirable pasturage and arable crops, and the geology of the hills is such that the results of the denudation are abundantly fertile.

As regards the production of protective foods Great

Britain is particularly well situated, i.e. those that supply vitamins and mineral matter essential in diet.

There are no grounds for defective diet in the climate and agriculture of the country, and if there were they can be supplied by importation from without.

Further, there are no racial difficulties. A man gives up his native language more readily than he gives up his native food. But the British are fairly homogenous or at any rate have lived together long enough to adapt themselves to each other's habits and vices, dietetic or otherwise. (Have not the English taught the Huguenot immigrants to play cricket and the Scottish the English to play golf?) Consequently we may say without fear of contradiction that neither climatic conditions, nor customs, nor traditions, except possibly to a certain extent among orthodox Jews, stand in the way of the consumption of a satisfactory diet in any part of Great Britain. None of the nutritional diseases are prevalent. Those known to be due to the absence of one or other of the vitamins are rare and becoming rarer. Scurvy, for example, once rampant, has to all intents and purposes disappeared.

On the other hand, nutritional disease due to the lack of Vitamin D is still with us. That disease is rickets. The more striking expressions are much less prevalent than they were in 1900 and the disease is on the wane. But there is, however, much too much of it in its less obvious forms. X-ray examinations suggest that very few of us are free from some slight stigmata of past rickets. If, as I believe, defective teeth are due to deficiency in Vitamin D, it will be seen that the diet of Great Britain is far from satisfactory, for I imagine that the English teeth are the worst among civilised nations.

Much of the anæmia of mother and child is due to deficiency in iron. Evidence from a depressed area such as Newcastle has shown a definite shortage of Vitamin A. Night blindness and types of skin lesions observed in children are due to the same shortage.

Finally there is the problem of malnutrition. The medical faculty as a whole regard malnutrition as a clinical entity. There is a group of symptoms which, when they appear, stamp a child as definitely suffering from malnutrition.

It is a matter of controversy whether malnutrition is present to any great extent and is increasing as the result of unemployment. To the layman it appears as though medical men and politicians alike are confusing malnutrition with underfeeding, and whereas it is undoubtedly true that many

unemployed families—indeed probably all families where there are three or more children—are underfed, it *may* be true that clinical malnutrition among the children is not yet in evidence.

We can sum up by saying that while there are no reasons for supposing that a perfect diet is not possible, even for the majority of people in Great Britain, there are unfortunately too many grounds for believing that many, if not the majority of, the people are not getting it.

The problem is how to combat the evil. The practical difficulties are money, or the lack of it, in the first place, coupled with prejudice and conservatism. It may just as well be said that even if there were enough money to go round, it would take many years, possibly generations, of education to persuade the British to eat a satisfactory diet."

Professor Mottram discussed at some length the various estimates as to what constitutes an adequate diet and the expenditure necessary to obtain it. He was of opinion that there was "*a crying need for a nation-wide survey by impartial authorities of the relation of income to physical needs.*" A nation's chief asset is the health and well-being of its people, but in Great Britain he feared that ordinary economic considerations were allowed to outweigh considerations of health and well-being. In this relation he discussed sugar beet and the marketing of milk, which had, however, this to be said for it, that some children in schools were getting milk at half the nominal cost.

"Seeing that our politicians need education in diet, is it surprising that the majority of the people of the country know little or nothing about the subject?"

The average well-to-do public, though it gets on reasonably on diet, has little but habit and custom tempered with patent food advertisements and old wives' tales to guide it. Public authorities give but little instruction as yet in hygiene and dietetics. Of late, however, the Colleges of Domestic Science have begun to take an interest. He instanced Glasgow and Gloucester, the latter providing a fourth year of study after a science degree in the University of Gloucester. Domestic science teachers were attending a summer course at Berridge House and at the College in Buckingham Palace Road. For two years King's College of Household and Social Sciences has held in conjunction with the London Hospital diet kitchens a post-graduate course in dietetics in the University of London, with a parallel diploma of the College of Physicians and Surgeons for State-registered

nurses and three-year domestic science students. The same college runs an intensive summer course and a winter course in dietetics for nurses and school teachers. Popular health propaganda is undertaken to some extent through the travelling exhibition of the Central Council for Maternity and Child Welfare and more recently the Women's Institutes and Townswomen's Guilds had taken up the subject—but what is needed is a central rallying point for the forces, paid and unpaid, which are making for the improvement of the diet of the people.

“One hopes for the institution of chairs of normal dietetics in the provincial universities, the holders of which should be expected to go down to the local educational and medical centres to preach the gospel of good and right feeding.”

THIRD SESSION, TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST, 2.0 P.M.—4.30 P.M.

The Prevention of Epidemics in Schools

Dr. Maurice Mitman (Divisional Medical Officer,
London County Council)

Dr. Mitman said he would deal only with the diseases caused by germs—living organisms which must be combated along two lines.

Firstly, as we cannot *abolish* germs, we must avoid them as far as possible.

Secondly, we must strengthen the resistance of the body.

There are three main channels by which germs enter the body :—

1. They may be inhaled and enter the body through the respiratory organs.
2. They may be ingested with food or drink and enter through the digestive organs.
3. They may gain access through a damaged skin.

Diphtheria, scarlet fever, whooping cough, chickenpox, smallpox, mumps, German measles, infantile paralysis or poliomyelitis, spotted fever or cerebro-spinal meningitis, influenza, even the common cold, tonsillitis and sore throat

are all caused by organisms that enter the body through the respiratory organs. The breath of a person suffering from such disease contains a large number of such organisms which are expelled by coughing or sneezing and projected in little drops of saliva. Hence this method of infection is called droplet infection. Infected droplets are also exhaled in talking and laughing. Thus in the spread of infection human beings play the most important part. Although inanimate objects may be infected they, generally speaking, remain so only for a short time and are rarely responsible for the spread of infection unless the article, such as a pencil, be passed from the mouth of the infected to the non-infected child.

The common cold deserves to be treated with much more respect than it has hitherto received.

A disease with a rash is not more malignant than one without. Scarlet fever is very similar to tonsilitis, the main difference being that in scarlet fever there is a rash. The rash by itself is not infectious, nor is the peeling that follows. The throat is the origin of infection and the disease is carried by droplets. Another important fact is that the disease is most infectious in the early stages, e.g. measles is most infectious just *before* the rash comes out. The earliest signs of many infectious diseases are the same, headache, sickness, sore throat, sneezing, coughing. All children should be taught to guard the mouth and nose during coughing and sneezing and to breathe through the nose, which acts as a filter. Sucking of pens and pencils should be discouraged. In dormitories adequate spacing between beds ensures that sleepers are outside the effective range of droplet infection. Ventilation and sunshine are important ; germs blown about in the air quickly die.

The other main line of prevention is to raise the resistance of the body. There are two types of resistance : general or specific. Fresh air, sunlight, exercise, adequate rest, proper and sufficient food and the elimination of waste products help to raise the *general* resistance, but do not secure immunity from *specific* diseases. At present we are only able to assist the specific resistance of the body to a few diseases. Diphtheria is a good example of what can be done. We know the cause, we can test the child to know if he has specific resistance enough to confer immunity ; finally we can verify if this has been done successfully by a subsequent test. Of course 100 per cent. cannot be quarantined, but in the minds of all workers in this field there is no doubt of its

efficacy. This method has been widely adopted in America, but in this country we are a long way behindhand.

Dr. Mitman outlined a series of general rules demanding the co-operation of school authorities, teachers, doctors and parents :—

1. *Medical inspection* in addition to routine inspection ; a record should be obtained of diseases from which the child has suffered before attending school and of those which occur while he is at school. When possible, arrangements should be made to immunise children against preventable diseases. The co-operation of teachers in advocating measures is valuable.

2. *The Rules of General Hygiene.*—Well-constructed schools, correctly heated and built, pure water supply, suitable sanitary accommodation are required in the interests of general education and only incidentally concerned with the spread of epidemics.

3. *Rules of Personal Hygiene.*—Fresh air, exercise, adequate food—for avoidance of infection, correct breathing, guarding mouth and nose when coughing or sneezing, avoidance of use of common drinking utensils, sucking pencils.

4. *Observation of Children* by teachers of fundamental importance. Teachers should refer children whose general health appears unsatisfactory to the school doctor. Special notice should be taken of the common symptoms of infection, headache, sore throat, vomiting, feverish coughs and colds, discharges from eyes, nose and ears, abnormal condition of skin, unhealthy scalp, swollen glands. During epidemics, teachers should familiarise themselves with the early symptoms. Prompt exclusion of suspects can do much to limit spread of infection.

5. *Exclusion of Sufferers' Contacts.*—Children returning to school should be watched for a fortnight or so as occasionally they develop symptoms indicating that they are still a potential source of infection.

6. *Contacts.*—It may not be always possible or desirable to exclude such. Teachers should have available information as to the average incubation period of common infectious diseases, and so be in a position to watch contacts at the end of the incubation period and detect new cases in the most infectious stage.

7. *Residential Schools.*—When an infectious disease breaks out in a neighbouring town it is desirable to put the town out of bounds. Parents should be warned not to send children if there is any suspicion of infectious disease in the house. Infectious disease occurring in the family of a master or official connected with the school should be immediately reported to the school medical officer.

All servants, tradesmen and others having access to the school premises should be required to give notice of the outbreak of infectious disease among their families or work-people. It is desirable that isolation accommodation should be provided in school infirmaries so that doubtful cases can be kept under observation and all definite cases segregated.

In general, infectious diseases are best nursed in fever hospitals.

8. *Disinfection.*—It is most important to disinfect the clothing and linen of infected children, especially when they have been soiled by discharges. This particularly applies to handkerchiefs.

Two injunctions arose on these suggestions for the prevention of infectious disease—avoid droplet infection: increase the specific resistance of the body.

Miss A. R. Morison (Headmistress, Frances Holland School for Girls, London), during the subsequent discussion, described the measures taken in her school to prevent the spread of epidemic disease. Every part of the school is sprayed daily with disinfectant by means of a hand spray. Instead of sawdust, all sweeping is done with disinfectant and once a week stairs and passages are scrubbed with soft soap. Only disinfectant toilet soap is used throughout the school. The boarders have their throats sprayed morning and evening with thymol glycerine. All water is boiled and all milk is certified tuberculin tested milk. Coughing is not allowed; if a child must cough it slips out to do so in private. Directly a case of infectious disease is noted listerine or formaline candles are burnt in the dormitory (in case of a boarder), the class-room is sprayed more profusely, and the parents notified. At the Frances Holland school during the last twenty-seven years there had been many cases of illness in the day school and the house, but no epidemic, that is to say no occasion on which more than six children were excluded from school at one time for the same cause, with one exception, when there was an

epidemic which was accounted for by the fact that, owing to a pending theatrical performance, all contacts had not been excluded. Miss Morison said she now provided against any such contingency by having double castes for all plays. She was emphatic as to the importance of the disinfectant spray.

Miss Morison's speech aroused lively interest.

Dr. Mitman, while admitting that she obtained results, was not convinced that she arrived at them by means of the spray, but was inclined to attribute them to the high standard of hygienic conditions maintained in her school.

Dr. H. C. Jennings (Medical Officer of Health, County of Oxford), agreed with Dr. Mitman: soap, hot water, elbow grease and sunshine were effective disinfectants if sufficiently used. In country districts the control of epidemics was being made more difficult by the present practice of collecting children in Central Schools from a wide area; in some cases an area of thirty miles was involved in grave risks of infection in this way.

Dr. Jane Baldwin (Denver) spoke of the importance of watching contacts. "All sore throats should be suspect."

Other speakers were Miss Rood and Mrs. Walter (California).

Dr. Rilliet (Chief School Medical Officer, Canton of Geneva) said that he had nothing very new to contribute but that the length of his observation as head of the schools medical service in the Canton of Geneva might give weight to his remarks. He did not admit that new maladies had appeared, as had been at times described in works on infantile ailments, but he had observed variations in the morbidity and mortality associated with certain diseases. For instance, during the last ten years polyomelitis appeared to assume an epidemic form from time to time, while scarlet fever had become less serious. Scarlet fever becomes epidemic at intervals of about ten years, measles at intervals of two to four years.

It is curious that serious epidemics of two diseases in one year are rare, and when influenza is present contagious

diseases are usually less prevalent. The epidemic cycle would appear to be due either to a modification in the virulence of the germ (scarlet fever) or because a certain number of children of school age have become immune (measles, mumps, etc.). The contagion is at its height at the end of the incubation period which is known. There is still some obscurity with regard to the contagion of scarlet fever. Remarkable variations had been observed in the morbidity of scarlet fever, the number varying from 45 in 1924-25 to 585 in 1921-22.

Scarlet fever is particularly a disease of school age. In 1934, at Geneva, the incidence was 85 among 10,000 children, while that of diphtheria was 6.6 per 10,000.

The death rate had greatly declined. The last fatal case occurred in 1922.

After discussing the conditions favourable to contagion, Dr. Rillet spoke of prevention. He said the most practical method is vaccination. Unfortunately it is only applicable to smallpox and diphtheria. During the last twenty-five years there has not been a single case of smallpox in the Canton of Geneva.

As for diphtheria, since the State made vaccination (immunisation) obligatory in 1932 for all children under ten years of age morbidity has steadily declined.

1929-30	136 cases.
1930-31	49 "
1931-32	55 "
1932-33	32 "
1933-34	70 "
1934-35	13 "

There had been no fatal case among children who had been immunised.

School Health Progress

Dr. A. Ripkova (Child Health Specialist, Zlin, Czechoslovakia).

"With the uprise of medicine, which slowly leaves the narrow path of therapeutic cure to take up the wide, common road of curative, preventive and social-health care, particular compounds of this preventive and curative work for human

beings are deepening. They go through different phases of development and they are continually perfected.

One of them is the care for school children. Our task is to outline briefly a picture of this care ; on the one hand in the usual form, on the other hand as a part of a hospital organised in a modern way.

Programme of the School Health Service

A universally known programme of the school health service consists of :—

1. The protection of health ;
2. The correction of defects and abnormalities ;
3. The promotion of health of the school children.

The school health service is solving this task by :—

1. The direct care for children with individual and collective examinations.
2. The care of environment in which the child lives—school, home, outdoor life.
3. Health education of children, parents, teachers and public at large.
4. Research work.

Ad. 1. Individual examinations of children are performed according to a certain standard given on record cards which contain eugenic and anthropometric data also. Collective work is aiming to uncover different defects in growth and development of children, whose early discovery is significant not only for the health of individual but also for the whole collective. These health defects very often are possible to be removed or moderated by collective interventions.

Ad. 2. In the school, the school health service is controlling the hygiene of education, the number and the programme of the lessons, and is moderating the physical education. The hygienic milieu at home influences the school health service directly by visits of the school nurse. By the control of physical and mental health of the children out-of-doors the school health service is taking part, with its school nurse, in co-operation with public health service represented by medical officer, social nurse, sanitary engineers, and others.

Ad. 3. The health education penetrates the whole school education : at first the children are taught health habits, later they are gaining by their own health experience, and finally become acquainted with the anatomy and physiology of their own body and their physical and mental necessities. The health education must be undertaken individually according to the age and mental capacity of the child.

The school-health service comes into contact with the parents at the school meetings or with help of letters and written pamphlets on certain health matters. Very important is also the visiting service in the families.

The school health service is organising regular meetings with the teachers' staff, at which takes place reporting about the school and public health activities, and is informing the teachers of contemporary hygienic progresses.

The public is also informed through the Press about health educative problems.

Ad. 4. The research work of the school health service has a wide field. Systematical observing of the evolution during the school age of eight years, which is performed by antropometric measurements can clear up the evolution of constitutional types, and in this way may be discovered yard-sticks for placing of the border-line cases. Very important is also the work in eugenics which is absolutely necessary for the correct analysis of individual, physical and mainly physic states, which we can perform only then if we know the family characteristics and hereditary marks. Also very worthy is to follow the influence of physical education in its particular parts on the growing organism ; according to the acquired results it is possible scientifically to arrange the physical education for every certain age or for individual cases. The research of endocrinology system at the school population is giving the picture of the degree of the degenerative stage of the country.

The Organisation of the School Health Service

The school health service is still solved as a part of the public health service. The executive members are school medical officers, school nurse, sanitary engineer, specialists or hygienists. The school medical officer is either working full time or part time, the school nurse only full time, the specialists part time.

The working place of the school health service is partly

the school, partly the station, containing the examination-room for the special examinations with the necessary apparatus, and the room for transitory treatment of children, e.g. scabies, pediculosis, X-ray laboratory, chemical and bacteriological laboratory.

Very important is the co-operation with the social health institutions which have large health-social records of children and their parents and a specially trained staff.

The co-operation of all the factors taking part in the school health service *is* possible, but it is very difficult because of the different interest of individuals and institutions, and the distance of the private working place of the individuals, for the restricted number of the working hours, for the long procedure through which the case has to go before it is solved. Perhaps there is a child which is badly developing physically and whose school progress is unsatisfactory; the school officer finds out the hypertrophic tonsillitis and recommends the case to a laryngologist and mental hygienist. In social cases it is necessary to do the investigation with the assistance of some social institution with whose help also is arranged the covering for the medical intervention and admission in the hospital.

The Organisation of a Modern Hospital

The hospital, organised from the point of the interest of sick and healthy persons, consists of many special departments—diagnostical and research laboratories and social health sections which are a direct part of the hospital.

In the hospital and social health department, the record cards are kept about every particular case, in which the social, family and personal history is rendered faithfully. Thus every case is lighted up from the social, economic, hygienic and biologic point of view.

The working place of separate sections and social health institutes is the care for sick people in hospitals, care for sick people and convalescents at home, and the care for threatened and healthy people at home and in their working surroundings.

School Health Service in a Modern Hospital

The school health service belongs to the activity of the pediatric department: it is a compound part of its extramural activity, namely, the care of the child's health. The pediatric department of the hospital is a centre for general and special

preventive care, for social and curative care in the whole hospital surroundings. It establishes the relations with dispensaries, with pregnant women and with the obstetrics, and accepts in its working area the new borns, who rest in evidence of the infant and child welfare stations. The pediatric department during the school age organises and maintains the control of the health of the children. The record cards of the pre-natal age state the family and biological data, the cards of the obstetrical department state the data of confinement and of the first days after birth, the records of the infant and child welfare stations illustrate the child's development and explain the causes of eventual disorders.

The school health service establishes relations with indicated records for the individual care of school children. These records are its guide to the entire evaluation of health, especially of the immunobiological state.

The individual and also collective care asks urgently for co-operation with special hospital sections; with the chemical laboratory for blood and urine tests, with the bacteriological at the investigation of contagious and infectious diseases, with the X-ray laboratory in the case of accident, and at the verifying of tuberculosis and searching for the source of tuberculosis or tuberculous contact. The importance of special examination is evident at the abnormalities of the refraction. In individual cases the dermatological department takes over the care of skin diseases, which are dangerous in school collectives, e.g. trichophytia capillitii, pediculosis, scabies, etc. Stomatology performs an important curative part in the treatment of the dental cares of individual children and the preventive care of teeth of all school children; otorhinolaryngology at the individual and group examination of the acuteness of children's hearing with slow reaction time and with hardness of hearing and at the exact indication of tonsillotomy or tonsillectomy. Very important also is the co-operation of the school health service with orthopædics in individual cases demanding special treatment, and at the solving of the question of remedial exercises following the correction of beginning defects, with the psychiatric and neurological department in individual cases of mental deficiency and problem children and at the classification of mentally defective children into the opportunity classes.

A modern organised hospital offers very good conditions for the research work in its special laboratories and special

departments by the assistance of numerous specialists in curative, preventive and social health care.

The advantages of organisation of the school health service as a part of a hospital. The advantages of the organisation as a part of a hospital are evident :—

1. The working staff is large : the pediatrician, the school nurse, especially trained, and the whole of the working collectives of the hospital are available.

2. The work is based on co-operation, which is the main principle of the hospital.

3. The work is economic : the record cards have a uniform character, and all are kept in one particular place ; the cases are solved in time so that danger cannot rise from delay ; the work is not duplicated, being done by the collective co-operatives.

4. The control of particular cases at home and out of home is easy because of the co-operation of the social health nurses of special dispensaries.

When we estimate the entire work from the psychological standpoint of the work, it is obvious that the work which reaches the case and problem in the best way fills the worker with satisfaction. Satisfaction of the work is the highest point in the life of everybody.

In Czechoslovakia the school health service is organised also as a part of the public health service just as in foreign countries. It is only in Zlín where the school health service was solved in a modern way and a year ago was annexed to the pediatric department of the hospital."

Mobilising Community Forces for Health

Rosamond Losh (Executive Secretary, Kansas City Children's Bureau)

"It is my purpose to indicate how 3,000 of Kansas City, Missouri's, community forces are mobilised yearly for an effective child conservation and parent education programme that accomplishes its tremendous objectives on a very limited budget.

In 1917, when the United States government launched a nation-wide campaign to ascertain the country's health

resources, some startling facts were disclosed regarding the health of pre-school children in Kansas City. A physical examination of over 6,000 children under six years of age, made during this campaign, revealed the fact that 69.8 per cent. were labouring under physical handicaps of greater or less degree. Seven out of every ten of these children were retarded in their development, and only a small number were protected against smallpox and diphtheria. These examinations also made it clear that the health needs did not vary greatly among children of different financial levels or in different sections of the city; nor were there extreme racial differences. Neither rich nor poor, black nor white, were receiving adequate medical care, health supervision, or community health protection. Furthermore, the city's infant mortality rate was 128 per thousand live births.

There seemed to be but one way to correct such conditions. That was to initiate *city-wide* preventive health work for ALL children. The Kansas City Children's Bureau was organised in 1918 for the sole purpose of conserving the lives of all children from before birth to six years of age, by discovering defects and endeavouring to have them removed, by educating parents in the physical care and the training of children and in the necessity for regular medical supervision, and by training youth for parenthood.

With the advice and assistance of two experts from the United States Department of Labour, a record system was completed. The Bureau formulated plans which included, first, the education of all workers who wished to participate in the programme; second, making an educational visit in the home of each pre-school child at least once a year; third, an annual health examination, by a physician, of every child; fourth, following up each child found by the physician to need attention; fifth, educating individual parents in the proper physical care of children; sixth, organising *groups* of parents for systematised study of child care and training; seventh, making the school district the unit of organisation, as parents are accustomed to this unit of work. Since the work is designed to bring children into school in good physical condition, the Board of Education readily grants space in the school buildings for health examination centres.

There are in Kansas City approximately 32,000 pre-school children representing about 20,000 homes. It is evident that a programme of such magnitude necessitates volunteer

effort in addition to available financing. While the Chamber of Commerce makes an appropriation yearly for the work, it is just sufficient to defray overhead expenses, provide supplies, pay a small fee to examining physicians and group leaders and to employ a sufficient number of experienced people to train and direct the workers. A very large number of volunteers is necessary to do the work which cannot be financed by the Bureau.

The health needs of children are presented to a large number of social and civic organizations whose co-operation is sought. Over 300 such groups are now co-operating, furnishing over 3,000 volunteers yearly. Each group appoints a child welfare chairman who assumes the responsibility for keeping alive the interest of her organization in child health, and for providing the Bureau with a force of volunteers to work under its direction. These workers, whose services have been found to be both stable and efficient, are recruited largely from the ranks of women of college and university training. Such organizations as the American Association of University Women, the Parent-Teacher Associations, the alumnae of college sororities, Catholic women's clubs, the Junior League, Women's Study Clubs, Junior and Senior Jewish Councils, and the Women's City Club provide the greater number of the workers. The department of sociology in the Kansas City Junior College requires all its students to engage in this activity.

Since the success of such an organization depends so largely upon volunteers, a rigid adherence to a well-defined plan for training them is imperative. The following procedure has been found successful in maintaining a sufficiently large and competent force to make effective the city-wide service.

First, volunteers who enter the service must be made fully aware of the needs of children and deeply interested in preventive health work for them.

Second, they must have a thorough understanding of the objectives, methods and procedures of the Bureau. This is largely acquired through a period of training in the office.

Third, they must be made to feel that they are indispensable to the cause.

Fourth, the special type of service for which a volunteer is best fitted must be determined.

Fifth, the volunteer must acquire a sufficient knowledge

of all departments of work to enable her to determine where she can serve with the greatest degree of satisfaction.

Sixth, outstanding services must be given due recognition.

Seventh, the same promptness, regularity and attention to duties required from paid workers must be required from volunteers.

Eighth, frequent meetings of staff and volunteers must be held for general discussion of methods and results.

The workers must become effective health propagandists in the community. They must be prepared to create favourable public sentiment. They must convince every parent, rich and poor, that no city enterprise of this nature can succeed without the co-operation of the whole; that their children, no matter how many health specialists they may be able to employ, are no safer than the most neglected child; that it is their duty to help improve the health of ALL children, and not until they do so will the community be made safe for *their* children; that parenthood places the obligation on them whether they wish it or not. The city's decreasing child death rate indicates how they are meeting their responsibility.

The many activities involved in the programme offer a wide range of choice of services and provide for all types of ability. Volunteers do most of the clerical work of the office, copy records, prepare supplies for field work, make health and safety posters, write playlets and prepare statistics, exhibits, demonstrations.

Following the office training, the volunteer is initiated into the health examination centre and follow-up work under the direction of a member of the staff. About 90 per cent. of the 3,000 volunteers are used in the field service.

Before beginning each year's field work a general meeting of all the district leaders and child welfare chairmen is held for the purpose of restating the Bureau's principles, re-emphasising the needs of the work, re-evaluating the plans and procedures, reviewing past accomplishments, determining where new or greater emphasis is needed, and planning future activities.

There are 69 public and 30 parochial school districts in Kansas City, forming 99 units of work. Each co-operating organisation appoints a chairman of child welfare who is responsible for mobilising the number of volunteers necessary to do the work in the district assigned to her. According to the size of her district, she enlists from 30 to 50 workers for the house-to-house canvas. These volunteers meet two

days before the health examination is held with a member of the Bureau's staff, who instructs them in proper procedure for calling on parents and urging them to bring their pre-school children to the physical examination centre.

Ten or twelve volunteers assist in the health examination centre under the direction of a member of the staff. Some of these act as assistants to physicians, dentists and psychiatrists; others take history records, or disrobe, weigh and measure children; others explain home safety measures and exhibits; still others have charge of the interpretation and distribution of government health and training literature. A volunteer motor force makes it possible for the frail mother, or mothers living at a distance, to reach the centre with their babies.

Following her health examination centre, each chairman sends from five to ten volunteers to assist at the Bureau's office in transferring the information from the examination card to a permanent physical history record for the office files, and to make lists of the children who have defects, that need follow-up, or are in need of vaccination or diphtheria immunisation. Volunteers also accompany trained workers in follow-up visits in the home for a limited time, and are then given charge of the simpler cases.

It is impossible to enumerate all the helpful aspects of volunteer service. They have made possible each year 35,000 educational home visits, the distribution of over 300,000 pieces of literature, a physical examination of over 20,000 pre-school children, the follow-up of over 10,000 pre-school children, lowered infant mortality from 128 per thousand to 51 per thousand. They have reduced the number of defects from seven in ten to three in ten, are bringing children into school in better physical condition, and have practically eliminated repeaters. The service of these volunteers working under bureau direction has made possible not only the physical betterment of the child, but has resulted in an improved environment for his development. The medical profession recognises the work as a definite aid in making parents more intelligent in following the physician's instructions.

The volunteers who each year co-operate in this enterprise are doing an inestimable service to the home, the community, and the State. As Dr. Samuel Crumline of the American Child Health Association has said, 'The Bureau has created in Kansas City an enduring child health consciousness among all our citizens.' "

FOURTH SESSION, THURSDAY, 15TH AUGUST,

10 A.M.—1.0 P.M.

MENTAL HYGIENE OF THE SCHOOL CHILD

Heredity and Education : The Importance in
Mental Hygiene of the Child

Dr. George Heuyer (Médecin des hôpitaux de Paris, Directeur de la Clinique de Neuropsychiatrie Infantile)

Dr. Heuyer, after expressing his gratification at having an opportunity of speaking at Oxford with its glorious traditions in education, continued that he spoke as a doctor rather than as an educationist on the subject of the mental health of the child.

He wished to make clear from the beginning that it was for the medical profession to establish the rules of mental hygiene, as it was its business to establish the principles governing the prevention of infectious disease.

From the point of view of eugenics, the heredity factor was the most important, and Dr. Heuyer reviewed the suggestions and such legislation as had been adopted to limit the reproduction of the unfit, sterilisation, segregation, birth control, etc.

But he pointed out that heredity is not the sole cause of psychopathy in children. Heredity itself might be affected by obstetrical shock and infectious diseases acquired in childhood, including scarlet fever, whooping cough, diphtheria. The more the nervous and mental symptoms—slight though they may be in themselves—that accompany such diseases are observed, the more evident it becomes that the effects may be manifest in difficult and late-developing children.

Freud and the psychologists minimise the importance of heredity in favour of that of environment and attribute psychopathic symptoms to causes affecting the child in earliest infancy and during its early years. There is a certain amount of truth in this as in all theories. It resumes, from another aspect, the classic conception of the part played by the family and by education as contributing to mental hygiene. Freud admits that there is a primary hereditary constitution: on this foundation the neurosis is developed according to circumstances. Whatever theory be accepted, mental hygiene is founded on the educational regime achieved

at home, in school, in the relation of the child to his parents, his brothers and sisters, his masters, his playfellows, in short, in his environment.

Mental hygiene is based on the one hand on logical and complete development of all the intellectual and moral capabilities of the child; on the other on the need for a suitable emotional environment and the absence of such psychic trauma as tend to upset normal development.

School should provide the child with the social environment, where he may learn to develop the sense of responsibility, of solidarity and of discipline by consent.

Having further discussed the importance of the domestic and educational environment and the child's powers of imitation and adaptation, Dr. Heuyer drew attention to the "reaction of opposition," which produced results contrary to those that might normally be expected to follow from examples, either good or bad, with which the child came in contact. In his view the reaction of opposition "required much fuller investigation."

Dr. Heuyer dealt at some length with the relation between parents and children. Parents ought to understand that the child's mission is to unite the family and that of the family to provide for the harmonious development of the child.

Parents should avoid in the child's presence any element of conflict, either between man and woman or between father and mother.

The relations of the parents to the child are of paramount importance. Lack of or excess of tenderness are equally noxious. Punishment and reward have their influence on the attitude of the child toward family and social life and toward justice.

Family life, which is incomplete from the lack of either parent, presents the problem of the stepfather or stepmother.

Absence or excess of religious influences have their dangers. The choice of a profession has to consider the child, his aptitudes and the economic aspect. In the choice of a profession, character is often more important than manual dexterity or intelligence.

Throughout childhood and adolescence the relations between sexual development and mental equilibrium have to be taken into account. Psychoanalysis has usefully shown that the sexual life does not begin abruptly at puberty, but develops from infancy. But the question of sexual education is a delicate one, more easily asked than answered.

Speaking of the difficulties of so-called "abnormal

children," Dr. Heuyer said that though in a sense each child presented what the Americans called the "child problem" there were nevertheless clinical types that could be recognised. Certain tendencies were found to manifest themselves identically under similar circumstances.

The clinical study of psychopathic or delinquent children showed a predominant tendency which influenced their arts and generally determined the course of conduct through life.

Education could play an important part in the direction and modification of such. Thus mental hygiene might successfully combat inherited tendencies.

Dr. Heuyer quoted as of great importance the genealogies published by Lidbetter in 1923, as demonstrating the deplorable consequence of hereditary taint and its association with social degradation and disease.

Mental hygiene could not be considered simply from the point of view of eugenics, of education, of heredity or environment. In every case the elements are interwoven.

The matter requires collaboration. The biological and genetic laboratory is inseparable from social research, the psychologist must work with the psycho-analyst.

But in establishing the rules of mental hygiene all this collaboration must be under the control of the doctor.

The prophylaxis no less than the psychopathy of the child is essentially a medical problem. It is the doctor who must indicate the principles of prophylaxis to be applied by parents, teachers and social workers.

The Work of Child Guidance Clinics

**Dr. Emanuel Miller (Psychiarist to the East London
Child Guidance Clinic)**

Stories of child psychology were told by Dr. Emanuel Miller in his address.

Referring to play technique, Dr. Miller said a boy was brought to the clinic for examination, and he was allowed to play with a tray of sand, various models and figures. He repeatedly carried out a peculiar sort of funeral ritual. He dug a hole in the sand and buried a little figure, putting a Union Jack on it, kneeling at the side, saying a prayer and digging the figure up again.

This funeral service was carried out many times and the

child appeared to get some pleasure out of it. The social report of this case showed that the child had lost his father, and one gathered that although the child had shown a complete apathy on the death of his father, there was a story of grave ill-treatment of the little boy on the part of the father. It was a satisfaction of his own feelings to carry out this process of burial and resurrection. The boy ceased in time his destructiveness and also his delinquency.

Dr. Miller said the recreation period was as illuminating as the hours of actual work in a school, and it was possible to find out the potential gangster in the playground.

The Effect of School Examinations on Child Health

R. E. Roper (Educational Consultant, London)

"It is said that education is a preparation for life; we forget that it is also a part of life. Education at present is the same as the examination system. Because of this many teachers are driven to teach subjects rather than children. Hence child guidance clinics, which try to do the work that ought to be and might be done in school.

By the age of fourteen, the 12,000,000,000 nerve cells in the child's brain have reached 91 per cent. of their adult volume: that is, during school life the child has to 'grow' its brain as well as to use it. From eleven to fifteen it will be passing through the stage of puberty; about seventeen and a half another period of strain sets in. How does the examination system affect this growing child? First of all, many hours are spent in sitting; between morning and bedtime children spend at least six hours sitting down, a quarter of school life. A week's time-table of a girl matriculation candidate showed seventy hours' sitting and sixty-three hours' sleep. Young children sit less, but six hours daily is a fair average. Desk, seat and floor cause definite skeletal and muscular changes. A Pekinese dog sitting up and begging for hours would grow very tired; so does the child. But we have forgotten to make a place in school for it to lie down, to be horizontal instead of vertical. Roughly, of each twenty-four hours, for six to seven they are sitting, eight moving about, nine sleeping.

In July I examined the physique of 317 boys in a secondary

day school (with good physical education and a gymnasium), looking at feet, spines and chests. Flat feet are an index of general fatigue; flattened chests reduce breathing space; curved or stooping spines are a source of weakness. I was very careful to understate the data. It was interesting to see how the figures dropped in *IIa*, with the influx of primary school scholars—who probably had not had to make such long daily journeys to school. The numbers of stoops and curves and poor chests and feet were greater in *IVa* than in *IVb*; later inquiry showed that *IVb* were duller, and *IVa* brighter people who did more homework. Arranged by ages, the skeletal changes increased from eleven to fourteen or fifteen, dropped to sixteen and rose again in the later years—a striking correspondence with the periods of strain during puberty and adolescence. There were marked signs of fatigue among sixth form and prefects and older, more responsible, boys generally. Such structural changes are likely to be accompanied by functional disturbances.

Two years ago I examined 240 boys in a first-class boarding school in the country; their height-weight chart showed 63 per cent below the margin of health indicated by a line 7 per cent. below average. Many were more than 10 per cent. below this line, or 17 per cent. below average. From fourteen to fifteen and sixteen the school showed a progressive loss of reasonable weight. A hard-working set of children; the headmaster's house showed a very large percentage of stoops and curves; the junior house had most flat feet—it was farthest away from the main building.

Charts of height and weight of normal healthy children often show great irregularity between sixteen and seventeen and a half years, with losses of height as well as weight. It is an error to think of these immature young people as young men or women. But, you may say, what has all this to do with mental health? What has weight to do with mind, or height with brain? The old division of the human being into mind and body led to an error: when the mind was tired the thing to do was to take the other 'Siamese twin' and tire that; then both of them were supposed to be refreshed. The breakdowns we call indiscipline or crime or 'mental' are—if you like to say—abnormal; but before the abnormal comes the subnormal. It is just this subnormality which the strains of school life and preparation for examinations, together with the inevitable periods of growth-strain, are apt to produce. It is as though you had a cloudy liquid in a glass, indefinite, incomplete; and suddenly—when a

drop is added—the whole thing crystallizes into a new form. So (given the subnormality of fatigue and over-strain) a shock or accident or illness, the loss of a relative or friend, an emotional crisis, a bad report, or even some slighter thing, may give shape to a new pattern of thought, a change of habit, and John (or Jane) is somehow not the same.

A troublesome child, inattentive and silly, was to be withdrawn from school if next term showed no improvement. His 'patterns' of movement and thought were vague: he was what I have called subnormal. Attention to regular digestion and excretion, and a rest after midday meal, saved some of his energy. The staff agreed to be patient for a term, to avoid punishment, to encourage when possible, to rebuke only when absolutely necessary, and—centrally and most important of all—to help him to try to find something he wanted to do, preferably in the studio rather than the workshop, as being less tiring, and more likely to give him a chance to make something of beauty. The pursuit of some self-chosen creative work is the simplest means of focussing the wandering energy of nerves. By the end of the term he was almost at the top of his class. Nothing miraculous about this: an ordinary piece of co-operation between staff and child, between home and school. The subnormal became normal instead of abnormal. This type of work is done in almost every school, and could be done—would be done—in all schools for each child, were it not for examinations and their demands. We teachers can do the work if given a chance to get on with a real education. The school is the proper child-guidance clinic.

There is a new factor in education to-day, anxiety. Anxiety of the teacher to get the child through the examination; anxiety of the parents, and of the child, to get through. Anxiety for the future, where work is scarce and so many are looking for it. The examinations cast their shadow even on the infant schools, where the brighter ones are marked out for possible success, and the duller ones realise they are dull. Examinations precede with absolute accuracy the periods of pubertal and adolescent instability. Preparation for examinations should be scheduled as a dangerous occupation. I would suggest a rest room in every school, to be used by any tired child during school hours—where it might lie down. Such a room is for many more necessary than a playing field. A change of class-discipline would help, allowing children to move about more freely, even to stretch, during a lesson. Smaller classes are essential. The

raising of the leaving age until after puberty is well finished would be most valuable. Nothing but convention prevents the school certificate being given by the school (1) for considered study of a self-chosen subject over a period of years, (2) for versatility and adaptability. Above all, anxiety and fear in any form should be removed from education, and as far as possible from home life."

FIFTH SESSION, FRIDAY, 16TH AUGUST, 10.0 A.M.—1.0 P.M.

The Care of the Partially Sighted Child

Dr. Ralph Crowley (Former Senior Medical Officer,
Board of Education, England)

Dr. Crowley said that he had been asked to present to the Section a summary of the Report on the Partially Sighted Child which was the outcome of a committee, of which he was chairman, set up by the Medical Department of the Board of Education, England and Wales. The inquiry was one of a series of inquiries into scientific and practical aspects of work connected with the school medical service. He suggested that a good many of our activities connected with health and education tend to run on without due scrutiny and testing, and that accordingly matters remain in doubt and uncertainty as to their value and significance from lack of carefully planned review.

The case of the partially sighted child afforded a good example of close association between medicine and education. It required the careful co-operation of the administrator and of the specialist, both in medicine and education. The committee was composed of individuals thoroughly representative of these four lines of activity, and witnesses appeared before the committee competent to give evidence from all of the many angles of approach. As a consequence doubtful points were settled and future lines of investigation made clear. A summary of the statistics showed that there were in England and Wales approximately 5,000 children known to be partially sighted, of whom about 2,000 were in public elementary schools, 2,000 in special schools, 100 in other institutions, and some 250 in no school or institution. In addition the committee estimated that there were over 1,000 children not as yet ascertained. Accordingly there is

an estimated total of some 6,000 partially sighted children, about one-half of whom are not at present receiving special provision for their education. It will be understood that ascertainment varies in different parts of the country on account of difference in standard adopted.

Corresponding to the number of children for whom provision is made there are approximately forty day schools provided by twenty-two local education authorities. Nearly one-half of the accommodation is in London. On account of the small proportion of these children to the whole, provision is necessarily made by the largest education authorities only. Twenty-seven schools for the blind, nearly all residential, admit partially sighted children, for whom most of the schools provide special education other than that provided for the blind.

From one-third to three-quarters of the children, varying with each school, are myopic. These myopes constitute approximately one-tenth of all myopic children. There are broadly two classes of myopes—the physiological or innocent, and the pathological or malignant. We have still much to learn about the two groups. In particular we often cannot determine whether a given case is going to pass into the pathological group, and cases comparatively rapid in their progress for a time may cease to progress and remain “innocent.” We cannot say much more than that myopia is the result of faulty growth of the eye manifested in school life, and the question arises, and still remains largely unanswered, how far is school life responsible?

The *average* rate of increase of myopia among children remaining in public elementary schools without special education provision is about half a diopter, while among children in special schools it approximates nearer to one-quarter of a diopter. Accordingly if children remained, on the average, in the special school for four years (and the average is less than this) there would be a saving of not more than one diopter. Broadly speaking a child is considered suitable for a special school when the increase is more than one diopter per annum, and especially when, as is often the case, there is evidence of degeneration of the fundus. Further, the rate of progress must be taken into account, the degree which the myopia has reached, the age of the child, the family history, the visual acuity, the fact of illness, especially of measles. If the child can read only six twenty-fourths or less the special school is necessary on this account only. Most myopic children, after correction, can see well.

At every stage it is of the first importance that the partially-sighted should be tested as belonging to the group of seeing, not of blind, children. Accordingly the partially sighted should in no case attend schools for the blind unless there is a prospect that at, say, the age of sixteen years or before the child is expected to become blind.

Special educational provision for partially-sighted children is, in England and Wales, made in the main through the day special school or class. Such schools or classes are, with few exceptions, "segregated," i.e. the provision is *ad hoc* and outside the general administration of the elementary school. In one instance the classes form part of the administration of an open-air school. Residential provision is made through existing schools for the blind. This practice has arisen and extended owing to the fact that there is now far more accommodation for blind children than their numbers warrant. Indeed, after filling up some 600 places originally provided for the blind, there are still left some 500 vacancies in these schools. The committee was strongly of opinion that the practicability should be explored of reserving say three of these schools for the blind in the north, south and midlands respectively, for the exclusive use of partially-sighted children, adapting them especially on open-air lines for the use of the partially-sighted. Several of the medical witnesses laid stress on the need to provide for the young partially-sighted child with rapidly developing myopia the very best physical environment, particularly in regard to nutrition and fresh air and sunlight, withdrawing the child from all forms of close educational work.

A section of the Report is devoted to a discussion of the pros and cons of "segregation" and "non-segregation," and, in spite of the custom prevailing in this country, the committee recommended that whenever practicable the partially-sighted child should be left in the closest association with its full-seeing fellows.

On the subject of the school curriculum a close examination was made of this by Mr. Lavender, a member of the Committee and one of His Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, and by Mr. James Lumsden, His Majesty's Inspector of Special Schools. The latter conducted a specially planned inquiry, a full account of which is contained in an appendix to the Report. They found in the various schools "both in matters of major principles and in points of minor detail a bewildering view of opinion and practice"; in fact, the education given seemed to them to be in the "pre-scientific

stage." This was due not to any failure on the part of the teachers, but largely owing to the insufficient guidance given to them as to what might or might not be done within the school. There are conflicting and irreconcilable views as to how far these myopic children may or may not read and, if they do read, what character and size of type is necessary. A similar criticism applies to the physical training permitted. It was evident as the result of Mr. Lumsden's testing of the children that the restrictions on reading exercised a serious adverse influence on the English subjects taught. More time than customary is, as one would expect, given to hand-work in the curriculum, but there was evidence that it failed at times to show proper educational justification. It is impossible in the case of these children to ignore the relation between the school curriculum, especially in the case of older children, and the occupations they are likely to follow on leaving school. The Report, after discussing the matter somewhat fully, suggests that the "best chance for employment is in the distributive trades which call for less skill with their hands than an understanding of their fellow men"; and that accordingly what seems required is an education towards "the cultivation of those qualities which will enable them to meet their fellows on an equal footing in the ordinary round of business and social life, in which good address, confident carriage, and an intelligent grasp of topics of permanent and passing interest avail far more than a clever pair of hands, valuable as such hands may be to anyone in his private capacity." Such considerations point to the need of teachers with wide interests and who can talk effectively about them.

School Health Activities in Belgium

M. Dronsart (le Directeur-Général, Croix-Rouge de la Belgique).

[The following paper was read on behalf of M. Dronsart.]

"It is difficult to make an interesting annual report of the work of health education in Belgian schools. But in looking back over a period of some fifteen years, marked progress is observable.

Our teaching methods have become more active. In

matters of health the methods of the Child Health Association of America have been influential and they are being continuously developed through the Junior Red Cross. And we may confidently assert that health education is one of the main considerations to which teaching and the attention of educationists is directed. Progress in this direction has been very considerably aided during the last five years in Belgium by the extension of camping and of the Scout movement.

The activity of the Junior Red Cross has developed: more than one thousand schools are affiliated and besides those having actual attachment the influence of the movement has spread, thanks to its publications and to the spirit evoked.

The extension of recreation grounds is a matter for congratulation: in 1920 such were unknown, now the number is considerable. The question of a schools medical service awaits solution.

The law of 1921 appeared to be sufficiently stringent, but the results hoped for have not been achieved; at the moment attempts are being made to achieve the necessary reforms. Till medical inspection is improved much of the effort made both by the public authority and by voluntary organizations will remain unfruitful. We may, however, be on the whole satisfied with the health education of Belgian school children."

Making the Health Problems of the School into Educational Opportunities

Elma Rood (Associate in charge of Health Education, Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tenn.).

"There has never been a time in the history of the world when the aims and purposes of education have been so challenged as they are at present. The unsettled social and economic conditions prevailing in all civilized countries are testing people's ability to think for themselves and to meet life's problems intelligently. The fact that such a large part of the population seems unable to find its way out of the perplexities that surround them is making educators keenly aware of points in the educational process that need strengthening. It is making them realise more strongly

than ever before that the school must plan deliberately to bring children into closer contact with life's problems in order that they may experience under guidance and understanding leadership the steps needed in solving problems in a rational way.

Questions concerned with physical, mental or social health are matters of daily occurrence in every class-room. Many of these have to do with individual children, their handicaps, habits and attitudes, and depend very largely for a solution upon the personal efforts of the teacher, the child, and the parents. Other situations, such as lighting, safety, hand washing or school housekeeping, have to do with groups of children or perhaps with the whole school, and these are often best solved through the co-operation of pupils under the guidance of the teacher.

The above problems are usually known in advance, and so definite plans can be made for their solution. There are, in addition however, many unexpected incidents which arise in the course of the school day, and which should be grasped and made meaningful to the children at the time they occur. If this is done, the health programme will contain a wealth of live material. The extent to which this material is actually incorporated into the educational programme is determined largely by the type of school system and the freedom it affords in methods of work and, what is even more important by the vision of the teacher and her awareness of the multitude of opportunities available for the enrichment of her programme.

Just as a journey into any venture depends for its educational value largely upon good guidance, so the way in which this unfolding type of programme functions depends to a great extent upon the leadership of the class-room teacher. If we were going to select a teacher to put real life-situations into the educational programme of the school, what particular type of person would we look for? *First*, we would want a teacher who has enthusiasm, an enthusiasm resulting from a combination of good preparation, a belief in what she is doing, and good physical and mental health. Someone has aptly said that without this enthusiasm, a teacher is as discouraging as a flat tyre, and that the really effective leader enters her class-room each morning like a man entering upon a great adventure. *Second*, this teacher is a student of children. She learns as much as possible about the limitations and potentialities of each child in all phases of his development. She knows the parents of her pupils, the

home environment, and the assets and the liabilities of the community in which these children live. *Third*, this teacher is constantly growing herself. She sees in the steady procession of life-situations many opportunities for professional development. She has the courage to depart from the beaten pathways to travel along the lines of her children's interests, even though this leads to parks, woods, factories and mills. *Fourth*, this teacher is a friendly guide and leader. She believes in democracy in the class-room. Her interest in guiding children to a full development exceeds her interest in textbooks. With her children she accepts a problem as a challenge to learn something new; and a failure as an incentive to greater effort and perhaps to a new approach.

Such teachers are not found ready made, but must grow and develop out of experiences similar to those by which children develop. These teachers are constantly in the process of learning, and their programmes from year to year show the influence of an enriching experience in leading and guiding children. To such teachers, problems or difficulties are educational gold mines, the approaches to which, though often obscure, lead to hidden treasures.

The illustrations which follow have been selected from diaries kept by elementary teachers, who have been trying to use their schools as health laboratories, and will show some ways in which health problems have been developed educationally. The first group illustrates how problems of individual children were made meaningful to the children themselves and to their parents.

A sixth-grade child who had serious dental defects was getting behind in his work, and his health was evidently being impaired. The teacher through friendly conferences secured the child's interest in having the necessary corrective work done, but realised that his physical condition would not permit his earning the money to assist in paying for dental care. Investigation showed that his family was entirely unable to bear the expense. The teacher talked the matter over with the child and his mother, and with their understanding explained the case to a local club which used money from a savings fund to assist the child. The dentist also co-operated by making a minimum charge for his services.

An outbreak of pediculosis in one child in a rural

school was discussed with the entire group as a condition that might affect anyone. The pupils searched for information on the causes of the condition and learned ways of combating and of eradicating it. The individual child concerned carried home to his mother information on what to do and succeeded in solving the problem. A favourable change was made in the group attitude toward such an occurrence in the future.

A first-grade teacher found that a child had poor vision. Her diary shows the beginning steps which were taken in bringing about a solution.

' October 1.—I noticed Joe seemed to have difficulty in seeing the blackboard. I talked it over with him, and he said that his eyes hurt and that "sometimes things looked mixed up." His seat was changed and he was given permission to change again whenever necessary during the day to see clearly.

' October 2.—I reported the case to the health department. Miss Smith, the public health nurse, made an appointment for a visit the next day.

' October 3.—Miss Smith tested all the pupils. She reported that Joe's vision was 20/70 and advised that he needed special attention at once. She reported also that the family is in very poor circumstances.

' October 4.—We are planning a school programme for next Monday. A special invitation will go to Joe's mother. I plan to talk with her about Joe's eyes.'

The final paragraph of the diary recorded after a period of almost two months of steady work shows:—

' November 30.—The Lion's Club assisted the parents in securing glasses for Joe. Joe is happy because now he can see so much better that his school work is steadily improving.'

It is clear that these teachers succeeded to some extent in making child problems meaningful, and in securing co-operation from the home and the community by educational means.

The next illustrations show how teachers have utilised group problems as means of developing co-operative and intelligent planning, judging and acting.

A rural teacher who knew that the ventilation system was out of order, was anxious for his pupils to discover it for themselves. He therefore waited and said nothing, hoping that in time his students would notice the difficulty and introduce the problem. This did not happen, however, so one day when the ventilation was particularly bad, the teacher took his coat off and asked that the windows be opened. This brought up an inquiry as to the cause of his action, and as a result the seventh-grade boys investigated and found the ventilation fan broken. Fortunately, they were able to repair it and so brought about an improvement in the air conditions. When they saw the soot that filled the flue, and realised that it was being deposited on windows, light shades and school equipment, a general clean-up resulted in which the whole school took part.

A child was injured in a ball game and had to be sent to a neighbour's house to have a dressing applied. The entire lack of first aid equipment was clearly realised by the school, so that the suggestion to equip a small kit co-operatively was well received. The pupils hunted for suggestions in various books and pamphlets on what to include in the kit, and made a list of the minimum articles suggested as a guide in bringing articles from home. Several kinds of antiseptics were discussed, but no information was found as to which was best. It was finally decided to ask the health officer's advice, and his advice was followed.

A town school had a serious traffic problem on the highway fronting the building. The principal discussed with the children what should be done about it, and it was decided that the older boys should take turns in standing by the roadside and assisting the children in crossing. It was found, however, that the children did not always recognize the student traffic officer, and sometimes dodged across the street between cars. A conference with the safety worker of the Automobile Association, who came out at the school's request, resulted in two boys being selected at a time, one for each side of the street. Each boy wore a traffic belt

and a badge, which were presented by the automobile club. This plan seemed to work out very well. After it had been operating for a week, the children were called together to discuss how they felt the plan was working. They were unanimously in favour of the latter method and saw its advantages over the first one tried.

A rural teacher found her school and grounds in poor condition, with little realisation on the part of pupils that they shared any responsibility for keeping the school orderly, clean, and in repair. These notes show the steps which were taken in developing group action :

- ' October 6.—I told the pupils I had seen several things on the school grounds that I thought they would like to improve upon. I suggested that they use their eyes, and if they saw something that we could work on, to write it down on a piece of paper.
- ' October 8.—We called for reports, and listed them on the blackboard. Our list included many points I had not seen. We discussed what we could do about broken boards and loose hinges, and several pupils volunteered to bring tools and boards from home.
- ' October 9.—We organised several special committees ; one committee for yard cleaning, one for outdoor repairs, one for indoor cleaning, and one for indoor repairs. Each committee was to be responsible for any tools or equipment needed. Every child was on some committee.
- ' October 10.—Mr. Smith, father of one of the pupils, called at school to-day to offer his services, also his mowing-machine and his horses for cutting weeds in the backyard.'

The last illustrations show how teachers have grasped unforeseen situations and made them significant and meaningful.

The arithmetic class was to study weights and measures. It was suggested that when the nurse came from the health department, everyone might weigh and measure some person in the class.

A child fell at recess and cut his knee badly. The pupils assisted the teacher in applying first aid, in the meantime discussing how the accident could have happened. A search of the playground disclosed a piece of broken glass to be the cause. The school made a thorough search for further glass and resolved that great care should be taken to keep it off the playground.

A consolidated school was located in a mountain district which had never responded to immunisation of any kind. The teacher of the seventh and eighth grades who was also a Four H Club leader interested his boys in ways of protecting the farm stock. The interest shown in tuberculin testing of cows led to a unanimous response when the proposal was made to invite a government worker from the adjoining county to test the cows of the community. On the day set for the tests, seventy-eight cows were tied to the school fence, and the amateur farmers brought them all back again a few days later for the test reading. Fortunately, every cow was given a clean bill of health and went home with a tag in her ear. The teacher led the discussion to the need for protection of children, and a month later the health department was asked to give tuberculin tests in the school. The response was almost one hundred per cent, and the recommendations for individual follow-up and X-rays were accepted in every case.

Alice, a child in the fifth grade developed 'flu and later pneumonia. The class was interested in the reports which came as to her progress from day to day, and one morning a proposal was made by a child that they visit Alice. This was immediately objected to by another, who said her 'mother wouldn't allow her to go 'cause pneumonia was catching.' A heated argument on this point in which the school was about equally divided, resulted in a group being appointed to get material together which would settle the question. A call on the health department office produced the material. No information was forthcoming, however, from the teacher or the health director. Finally, after much searching, the statement was found that settled to everyone's satisfaction that a call on the sick child might be a dangerous procedure. In the search, much valuable general information was acquired. When Alice returned

to school, a chorus of voices informed her that they had studied all about what she had had, and her reply was : ' Well, it wasn't any fun ! '

A teacher kept the following notes showing how incidental happenings were used educationally from day to day.

- ' October 1.—John ran a splinter into his hand. The children helped me to sterilise the needle and they watched the extraction of the splinter. One child applied the antiseptic, and one took charge of the needle and match-box. All realised the importance of never using a needle for removing a splinter without sterilising it.
- ' October 10.—We had a reading lesson on Abraham Lincoln. His great strength was thought to be the result of outdoor life, plain food, hard exercise, and strong parents.
- ' October 11.—Joe announced that three of his hens had died. There was great interest as to the cause. James volunteered he had heard that chickens sometimes have tuberculosis. None of the children believed this, however. Searching in the encyclopædia and the Book of Knowledge showed this to be true. Joe said that he did not know the cause nor did his father. He said that his father burned the hens to make sure they were safely disposed of. The class approved.
- ' October 12.—Alice announced that Mrs. Brown, a neighbour, had an infected hand, and the doctor had been called. The doctor found that she had cut herself with a knife several days before and had not applied any antiseptic, and so her hand was infected. She might even have to lose her hand.'

Certain difficulties have been encountered in helping teachers to develop this type of school health work.

First, the more or less routine programmes which many teachers have been required to follow, have emphasized teaching a certain specified amount of subject matter in each grade. So covering the pages of a book or an outline sent out by the superintendent, has taken precedence over

problems that have to do fundamentally with the welfare of living children. Sometimes also teachers have had an idea that the responsibility for bringing about physical improvements in children belonged to the social worker or to the public health nurse, while the teacher was mainly responsible for teaching facts. It has been found, however, that when teachers study their children, and see clearly that the whole child is their responsibility, they often use the fullest opportunities to bring about physical improvement.

Second, there seems to be a certain feeling of security that accompanies a school programme that goes along pretty formally day by day. This security, however, often leads to stereotyped teaching, and is one of the reasons why teachers get into ruts professionally. The building of a programme which is constantly in the developing stage encourages and requires alertness and initiative, and this makes for professional growth. Then, teachers sometimes become discouraged because the progress made at first is often very slow. The teacher does not always realise that she herself must develop an awareness of opportunities and learn how to utilise them, and that the only way she can develop *skill* in doing this is through practice. Encouragement and assurance that continued efforts will bring results is needed. Often a teacher says in the spring of the year: 'I used to have such a hard time finding health problems and opportunities, but now I see so many that we just can't cover them all.'

Third, many teachers have always told children what to do. If a problem arose, or children disagreed on something, the teacher always represented the last word and she finally decided the question. To be willing to say to children, 'What do *you* think is the best thing to do?' or 'How can we find out what to do?' or 'What shall we do about this?' leaving the question to be decided as much as possible by the individual or group, requires an entire turnover in the teacher's thinking and methods and necessitates watchful effort and purposeful self-effacement.

Fourth, the lack of reference material presents a great problem in schools where one textbook on a subject has always been regarded as containing everything anyone could possibly want to know about that subject. When children develop a desire to find out about something instead of taking for granted everything they are told, they will use

eagerly a wealth of reference material. Many teachers have found that working with problems has stimulated the collection of supplementary pamphlets and books, and that the library shelf or table becomes an inspiration for broad reading along other lines as well.

Fifth, to solve problems by educational means requires time. No truly educational process can be worked out in a hurry. For instance, corrective work for one child may require weeks of constant effort, step by step being taken as the problem unfolds. When pressure is brought to bear upon an educational effort, and a teacher feels obliged to produce results overnight, so to speak, she may in her hurried approach, resort to unsound competitive devices, and other artificial means to bring about what is expected of her. When this happens, educational values are largely lost sight of, and the whole process becomes a good illustration of the old but disproved slogan which says that 'the end justifies the means.'

Now let us see some ways in which teachers may be encouraged to persist in self-training—which this problem solving really is—for the sake of the growth and development of their pupils. *First*, some kind of practical guide in the hands of the teacher should suggest to her the basic principles on which such a school-health programme may be built. This guide should not map out a programme for her school. It should suggest, however, a technique by which she may discover the *needs* of her children, and on the basis of which she may build a programme to fit her particular conditions and problems. The guide also should help the teacher to organise her progress report or diary.

Second, teachers have found it helpful to hear oral reports made on the progress which others are making in finding and solving problems. For instance, a teacher may report the steps she took in bringing about the correction of a child's physical defect, and in tracing this case-history, she may point out clearly to the group that constructive work often requires patient, persistent effort over weeks or months if the process is really educational to the child and to his parents; or a teacher may tell how her school attacked a group problem; for instance, how they controlled traffic on the highway, or how they worked out a plan for school housekeeping.

Third, the teacher is encouraged to look for certain indications of favourable developments in her school as an

accompaniment of this programme. For instance, does she see increasing ability on the part of her pupils to meet and to solve problems and difficulties, and to work together in harmony? Does she see evidence of increasing self-control by individual pupils, and are the pupils coming to respect the other person's opinion? Are students developing a questioning attitude, and do they desire to hunt for the whole truth about a question before taking action? Are pupils taking more personal responsibility for bringing about improvements in their own health and for making changes in their own environment?

If a teacher sees tangible changes along these lines in her school, and if at the same time she herself is finding increasingly educational opportunities growing out of her daily programme, then she may feel that she is making real progress.

Out of these developments a realisation usually grows in the teacher herself, that there are two different types of outcomes to be expected from her health programme, that physical change is only one phase, and that daily practices of pupils, favourable feelings and attitudes toward health problems, with increasing intelligence and ability in finding solutions for these problems are of equal importance, though less readily measured.

The teacher who works on such a growing programme for a period of a school year often is conscious of growing ability in planning and executing a health programme fitted to the needs of her particular school, and realises that the development of skill is the result of her continued effort to find and to use educational opportunities. Such a teacher would come to regard a new school situation with new conditions and new needs as a challenge to her ability to find the health problems of the school and to work them out with and through the children."

Health in Bulgarian Schools

Dr. Ganeva

[The following paper was read on behalf of Dr. Ganeva.]

"As in most countries the health of the school child is cared for alike by the education authority and by voluntary effort—but there is a general tendency to bring child welfare

work under state control which is made the easier in that all children of school age are subject to state control. Voluntary work by a decree passed last year is centred in the Union for the Protection of the Child, which receives considerable State aid.

The medical services and hygiene of the schools are under the control of the Minister of the Interior and of Public Health. As early as 1907 the Ministry of Education had initiated a health and medical service in secondary schools and in gymnasiums for children aged from thirteen to eighteen under a special inspectorate. This service is being steadily developed, and now at least 50 per cent. of such schools have their own doctor, the rest being attended by other doctors who receive a supplementary grant.

In 1928, the Office of Public Health set up an inspectorate of school health which directs the medical and health services of primary schools—free and compulsory for children from seven to thirteen, carried on by the local doctors and by twenty-five school doctors. In addition certain authorities maintain their own special doctors, as has been done by Sofia since 1906.

At the present time the control and inspection of all medical and health services under one authority is under consideration.

School doctors take cognizance of the hygienic condition of the schools and the health of the scholars. They are expected to teach hygiene and sometimes anatomy and physiology as well. Five or six years ago they were expected to undertake psychological research, but in view of the lack of equipment for such in the schools such investigations are negligible.

Lately there has arisen the problem of organising a psychological service as an aid to the selection of children for the intellectual and professional training for which they are most suited. Mental hygiene is still in a rudimentary state. Last year the Ministry of Health appointed a commission to investigate the subject.

Also at the moment there is a scheme for the establishment of school polytechnics for the treatment of internal troubles, eyes, ears and mental and nervous disorders. Dental apparatus is to be found in a few schools only.

There are no school nurses and very few district nurses. But the Minister of Education has urged school teachers, especially those in rural areas, to take up hygiene teaching and child welfare.

In order to fit them for such the Ministry, in collaboration with the Union for the Protection of the Child, has since 1927 organised teachers' courses in hygiene during the summer holidays. Up to now five hundred and seventy-seven teachers have taken such courses, and have shown great devotion in carrying on the work in the country districts and villages.

In spite of constant endeavour, our country, which has only enjoyed political freedom for some fifty years, does not yet possess adequate and modern sanitary buildings for our schools, particularly for our secondary schools—whereas in the villages the best building is generally the school. Constant efforts are being made to improve matters in this respect.

Recently very useful collaboration has been instituted between the inspectorate of the medical services attached to the Ministry of Education and the inspectorate of physical education.

Such collaboration is the more valuable in that a great variety of physical exercises is being introduced into school life.

Courses in physical education for teachers, both men and women, are arranged. At Sofia this year three such courses have been held and have each been taken up by one hundred men and women.

The ministry has also instituted a centre for research into the hygiene of sport, in order to be an effectual guide in the matter of school sports and games.

Private initiative has done much to supply recreation, grounds and sports grounds, summer colonies or camps and school canteens. Of the seventy-seven recreation grounds for children from seven to seventeen, ten belong to the communes and thirty-seven to benevolent societies, in particular the Union for the Protection of the Child and the American Near East Foundation, to whom belongs the credit not only of having started and organised them but also of having trained—with a certain amount of State aid—games teachers or leaders. Three such courses have been held and have been taken by one hundred and seven girls.

In addition most sports associations have juvenile sections, the Jounak Association being the oldest and the most important.

. Of the 172 summer colonies for 1,376 scholars costing 8,811,179 léves, 5 belong to the State, 3 to prefectures, 22 to communes, 16 to different schools, 7 are private and 120 belong to benevolent societies.

Of 1,350 free school canteens for 72,521 scholars at a cost of 16,650,330 lèves, 7 belong to the State, 79 to communes, 487 belonging to different schools have been instituted through the disinterested devotion of teachers and by voluntary organisations. Of 36 children's gardens for 1,892 children, costing 3,552,531 lèves, 6 are communal and 30 belong to voluntary organisations.

We have two fresh air schools, one at Sofia and the other at Lovetch, each accommodating seventy children, a preventorium at Varna on the Black Sea which has accommodation for one hundred children from Vienna. There is also a school for the blind, an institution for deaf-mutes, two sanatoria for tubercular children, these all being provided by the State.

Among the school organisations of particular value in the promotion of hygiene and the habits of healthy living are the Temperance Society and the Junior Red Cross. This last has been in existence for thirteen years and has 2,700 groups in schools with a membership of 200,000.

The country is neither great nor rich, but it is willing to sacrifice anything for the sake of the children."

Health of School Children in the U.S.S.R.

Miss R. Pekina (Leningrad)

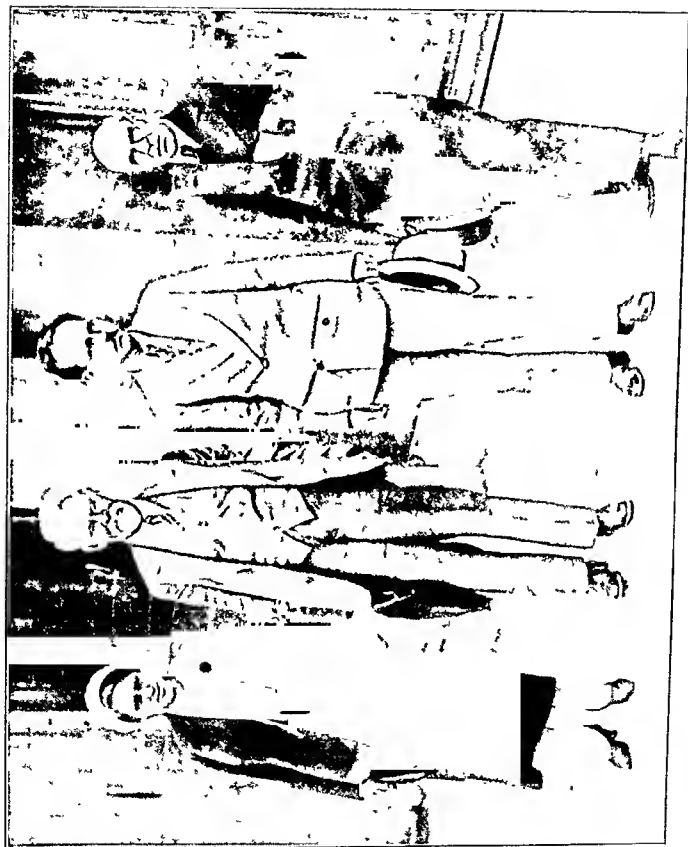
"I am a teacher in a secondary school in Leningrad which has 1,100 pupils, thirty pupils in a form. I want to tell you about the medical services in my school. We have a doctor and a nurse. The school is attached to an institute of youth and children welfare, where a great medical work is being carried on. At the beginning of the school year we have a general examination of all children in the institute. Every pupil has his special health card. Beside, the institute is carrying on preventive medical work under the observation of a school doctor. The children are also undergoing medical examination six times during the year, with the assistance of teachers, who are paying particular attention to the questions of personal hygiene, such as cleansing of teeth, clean ears, etc. On all these subjects teachers and doctors have special discussions with the parents. When the child is absent from school for two or three days, his home is always visited by a doctor or a nurse. All the pupils are enjoying free medical treatment and also compulsory dental treatment, which is carried through in

special children's dental clinics. The State and the trade unions are carrying through a tremendous amount of work for the improvement of the children's health. There are special forest schools where we send weak children for six months up to a year. Besides we have a great amount of children's rest homes, health resorts, etc. In summer-time school children are taken into special camps, situated in the countryside where they are spending their leisure under the observation of teachers and doctors. The State is spending on children's rest homes about nine million roubles. The State itself is paying for the maintenance of the children in the camps. Part of the expense is also paid by the enterprises patronising the schools. The parents never pay more than 17 or 18 per cent. of the maintenance. Up till now 40 per cent. of our children were taken into camps. Forty-five per cent. were in sanatoria and not less than one million absolutely free.

Pupils with weak sight are put into special classes, as well as those who are deaf. There are never more than fifteen or sixteen pupils in each class. Scientific and medical work carried through by teachers and doctors has all the possibilities for the improvement of the health of the children and strengthening their physique. We are doing a lot of investigation work such as :—

1. How to compose a school time-table from the point of view of what subjects should be first during the school day and what last, what are the easiest subjects and what the most tiring. So we came to the conclusion that such lessons as singing and physical culture should be at the middle of the day.
2. The regime of the day and how to organise the leisure of the school child.
3. How to organise the physical education of the child.
4. Influence of labour on mental and physical development of the child.

We came to the conclusion that manual work strengthens the nervous system and also the physical health of the child. Those children who are rather weak are exempted from physical culture. Those who are studying art and music are exempted from handicraft. For the weak children we have a special medical physical culture carried on under the supervision of the doctor. We have done away with the old systems of examinations which existed under the Czar.



RUSSIAN DELEGATES

TEACHER MARIA PEKINA, ACADEMICIAN B. KELLER, PROFESSOR LITVIN, AND TEACHER N. GOLOVIN

We are faced with the task of testing and controlling the work of the pupil and the teacher, to check up on the knowledge of the pupil. This is a social control of the work of the school.

Our children are not afraid of these tests. Our object is not to make them feel nervous and crain, or to give them a very difficult question. We just want to know whether the children have assimilated everything they have studied during the year. We are testing their knowledge systematically every day, every week and month. Very many children if weak are totally exempted from examinations. For instance, in my school we have exempted this year sixty-three children.

We have also collected very interesting material on psycho-hygienic questions during the tests. Very many articles on these subjects are published in our press.

As a result of this work and observation of the influence of the tests on the children, we have presented our own considerations to the Board of Education on how and in what way these tests could best be organised. So you can see that in our schools theoretical, medical and pedagogical work is confirmed by practice and that it is on practice that we improve our methods.

The school doctors and teachers are carrying through research work about the influence of heredity on the pupils, the influence of heredity on their mental capacities and physique. The school doctor is working in close co-operation with the parents of the children, assisting them in every way. I heard that in your country, as well as in other parts of Europe, there is a tremendous increase of rickets and T.B. among the children. The percentage of T.B. among our children is almost nil because of our medical service and school feeding.

I know that malnutrition among children is a great problem here. We have school feeding in every school. About 80 per cent. of our pupils are provided with hot meals in the schools, that is to say five million pupils are receiving free meals. For weak pupils we have special dietie food.

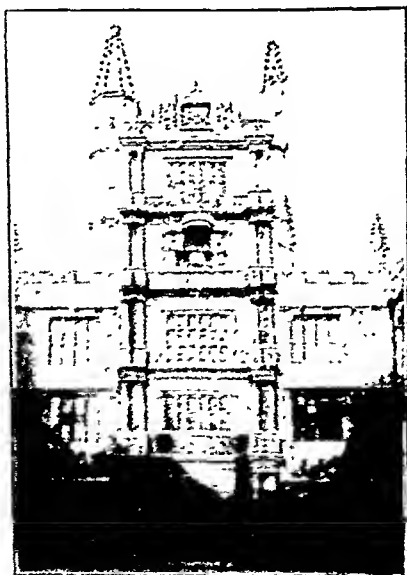
At present we are studying a whole series of questions connected with the health of school children.

1. Psycho-hygiene of school children.
2. Physical development of children at different ages.
3. Influence of different subjects on the children.

Children needing special treatment are receiving not only special food but after the lessons are resting in the air on special verandas, and as it is rather cold in our country they are provided with fur bags.

I am sorry that shortness of time prevents me from telling you more about our schools. You must remember that in Czarist Russia where the number of school children was only small there were no medical services at all. Now in Soviet Russia every school is provided with a doctor, and these doctors, together with us teachers and the parents, are furthering the development of our schools and are helping us in our object which is to educate a new free man, a builder of a new society which has not known and never will know the exploitation of man by man.

In conclusion I want to express my wish to establish a closer and permanent contact with the teachers of all other countries and hope that this exchange of experiences will be useful for all of us."



[The '72 Alderbrook]

THE TOWER OF "FIVE ORDERS" (1619)

HERMAN-JORDAN COMMITTEES

Chairman : DR. P. P. CLAXTON (President, Austin Peay Normal School, Clarksville, Tennessee : Former U.S. Commissioner of Education.)

Secretary : MISS W. ORGAN (Member of Executive, N.U.T.)

Place of Meeting : St. Michael's Hall.

Much of the work of these Committees has been done and the five are consolidated into one for the purpose of unification and to prepare the material for use.

FIRST SESSION, WEDNESDAY, 14TH AUGUST,

9.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

Intellectual Co-operation and International Understanding

M. Mercier (International Institute of International Co-operation)

“ Although the League of Nations did not have a Department of Intellectual Co-operation from its inception, it did not lose much time in setting one up. There were two fundamental reasons for doing so. In the first place, if we look back to the time just after the war had ended to the time when the Covenant was being drafted, we see that the hope of building up peace on solid foundations was based essentially on the recognition of a group of rules solemnly inscribed at the beginning of the Covenant, itself ratified by all the members of the League of Nations—rules which are, in fact, rules of intellectual co-operation and of international understanding. This recognition of universal rules of conduct and the acceptance of the consequences which it involves for international relations, was described a few

years later, when conditions were already difficult, as Moral Disarmament. Now there is no doubt that the finest and most complete treaty of moral disarmament was the Covenant of the League of Nations itself. Implicitly, therefore, it is an *entente spirituelle*, and a communion of minds, upon which the League of Nations rests, and which, indeed, must be at the root of any system of international organisation. As Mr. Paul Valéry, of the Académie Française, states, 'A League of Nations implies a League of Minds.'

This alone, sufficiently explains why League circles in Geneva very soon turned their attention to Intellectual Co-operation. On the other hand, during the first years of its existence the League of Nations, in order to get organised, enjoyed a brief moment of respite and reflection, which it successfully employed in organising its 'machinery.' Immediately after the war, when the minds of most people, and particularly the Governments, were still busy dealing with the consequences of the war, when the diplomats were chiefly preoccupied with settling the last remaining European disputes, with drawing the final frontier lines, discussing reparations or even concluding new treaties, the League of Nations, left out of the big international discussions, created a series of international organisms which you have often heard praised. It was at that moment that the League set up its technical organisations for Health, Communications, Finance and Economics. Its aim was, on the one hand, to establish direct relations between the administrative bodies of the different countries, and, on the other hand, to create a habit of working in common, of settling by international methods numerous problems with which the different nations were all faced at the same time. It wanted to provoke the creation of a first federal bond between the peoples, and it was quite natural and appropriate, for the reasons I have mentioned above, that this bond should refer to intellectual questions and to the world of thought, that the aim should have been to unite and establish relations between the departments and organisations responsible for intellectual questions and education and that the appeal should have been addressed to the representatives of thought.

It might be said without exaggeration that despite the creation of an Organisation of Intellectual Co-operation, the importance of these questions was not, and has not yet been, fully or sufficiently recognised. The history of the last fifteen years is entirely made up of deep-rooted incomprehension and misunderstanding.

Without desiring to depict the world situation as desperate, it must nevertheless be recognised that the essential conditions for a good international organization do not obtain to-day. While in virtue of the Covenant, a policy of international organisation and of the organization of peace was being pursued, at the same time the habits of a pre-war period were perpetuating themselves. Parallel with the policy of organising peace, a policy of the balance of powers was taking shape as early as 1920.

And yet, nevertheless, the international spirit does exist. Its elements are scattered in the consciences of the peoples. A widespread consensus of beliefs in regard to the principles which ought to rule their relations—reconciliation of interests, arbitration, international justice—exists, and it is rare that anyone dares openly oppose these great truths. But the problem remains of converting these principles into notions really determining international relations and of getting these moral values recognised as the compulsory source of political action. That is the greatest problem of the collaboration of thought and of intellectual rapprochement at the present time, and it is natural that, for help in resolving this problem, one should first of all think of the qualified representatives of scientific work and research, of those who are responsible for the education of the young, and of all those whose task it is to think and to foresee.

By virtue of its origins, of the very character of the work of the League of Nations and of the necessities of international life, the task of the organism of intellectual co-operation divides itself into two parts of equal importance; the one consisting of the co-ordination (if one may say so) and the organisation of intellectual life, the other consisting of moral action on public opinion and on the governments themselves, if possible. We will examine each of them in turn after having briefly described the 'machinery' of the International Organisation of Intellectual Co-operation established by the League of Nations.

This organisation consists of an International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation which acts as the advisory organ of the Council and Assembly of the League. It consists of seventeen members appointed by the Council among pre-eminent scholars of the different countries, and is the supreme organ of intellectual co-operation whose work and activities it directs and supervises. The chairman of the Committee is at present Mr. Gilbert Murray, the eminent humanist, professor at the University of Oxford.

For carrying on the work prescribed by this Committee, three permanent institutions have been established :

(1) An Intellectual Co-operation section in the League Secretariat. This section acts as the secretariat of the Committee, prepares the reports for the Council and Assembly of the League, and is also responsible for ensuring liaison with Governments on all questions concerning the instruction of youth in the aims and activities of the League.

(2) The International Educational Cinematograph Institute at Rome, whose object is to encourage the production, distribution and exchange of educational films.

(3) The International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation at Paris, which may be called the executive organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. The Director of the Institute is at present M. Henry Bonnet.

Besides this, the Organisation of Intellectual Co-operation comprises a certain number of committees of experts. Some of these committees of experts have a permanent character, such as the Permanent Committee on Arts and Letters and the Advisory Committee for League of Nations Teaching. Other committees of experts meet from time to time at the Institute in Paris in order to study some specific questions put to them by the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. For the most part they deal with problems which directly concern international rapprochement.

In order to establish a link between the International Committees and the Institute on the one hand and intellectual life in the different countries on the other, a *National Committee* on Intellectual Co-operation has been established in forty-one countries. In addition, some forty States have delegates accredited to the Paris Institute.

Before outlining the work of the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation it should be emphasised that this International Organisation of Intellectual Co-operation is in no way an attempt to bring about an official way of thinking. To canalise the manifestations of the mind would lead to depriving them of any influence on public opinion, which remains the greatest factor in international understanding.

But without in any degree encroaching on the freedom of thought it is possible to create contacts between the scientists,

educators and academic institutions; to co-ordinate their effort and develop a regular collaboration between them, not merely for facilitating information, but also to promote the creation of an international outlook.

As already stated those are the two greatest tasks of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation.

It would be impossible to explain all the technical details of the results which have already been obtained in the different fields of science, literature and arts—only to mention *the international co-operation between museums and art administrations*; the organisation of an *International Museums Office* which has enabled the directors of museums successfully to complete many important pieces of work such as, for example, the preservation of works of art and even a governmental convention in regard to the exchange of works of art. A similar type of liaison has been established between the great *libraries* for the purpose, for instance, of studying their social and educational functions, library planning and equipment, the international exchange of publications, catalogues and information, loan of books, etc. The establishment of a similar bond between the different public records offices (archives) has also begun to bear fruit, only to mention the recent publication of an *International Guide to Archives* and a first essay of co-ordination of archival terminology. The Institute acts also as the secretariat of the International Centre of Institutes of Archaeology and History of Arts, established in 1934. In the field of the exact and natural sciences the Institute has undertaken, in close collaboration with the International Scientific Organisations such as the International Union of Biology, of Chemistry, of Physics, the co-ordination of scientific terminology and collaboration between the scientific museums. As regards international law, the Institute, in close contact with the international institutions which deal with intellectual rights, has collaborated in the revision of the Conventions of Paris and Berne regarding the protection of industrial property and the literary and artistic works respectively (inventors' rights, authors' rights, rights of performers).

In pursuance of a resolution voted by the Assembly of the League, the Institute approached a few important broadcasting officials in different European countries with the object of examining the conditions that should govern the framing of broadcasting agreements to serve the cause of peace. The studies furnished by the experts were published

in a volume entitled *Broadcasting and Peace*. Authorised by the Assembly, the Institute convened in 1933 an experts' committee of jurists who established a preliminary draft convention based on the recommendations of the broadcasting officials. This draft international convention was submitted for study by the Secretary-General of the League to the governments. The Institute proceeded in October, 1934, to revise this draft according to the remarks made by the governments. This revised draft convention has been sent once more to the governments and will be submitted after a second revision for their approval.

There remains the second aspect of the work undertaken by the Institute, that which directly concerns international relations, and which aims at making intellectual co-operation a permanent factor, if not of international politics, at any rate of the relations between peoples.

It has been felt that during a difficult period like ours, the help of the intellectuals ought to find expression, not simply in general propaganda, but should take the form of supplying politicians and officials—in brief, the leaders of the League of Nations—directly with studies and first-hand research work in order to obtain a scientific and disinterested examination of the great problems with which the statesmen are faced. The aim is to study those problems from the intellectual angle and not from the point of view of concluding official agreements. This has led to the Organisation of Intellectual Co-operation to include in its programme, in recent years, a large chapter devoted to the study of international relations. With this end in view, an appeal has been made to the most representative classes of scientists and writers, in an attempt to get them to define the elements of that moral doctrine which ought to be recognised by all the nations, and also to the economists and historians, to make an exhaustive and exact study of some of the main causes of the present crisis. As regards the first point, the method adopted consisted of special meetings which were called 'conversations,' the exchange of 'open letters,' and the publication of special investigations. These meetings and studies were more particularly devoted to the definition of the aims which any international action ought to pursue. The future of culture, the propagation of a European outlook and of an international outlook, the educational function and responsibilities of the Press; such are the subjects which have been treated by outstanding men such as Einstein, Unamuno, Paul Valéry, Professor Gilbert Murray, Thomas

Mann, Huxley, Freud, Rabindranath Tagore, Johann Bojer and many others.

With regard to more specific problems, a conference called a Conference of Higher International Studies (*Hautes Etudes Internationales*) has been organised. Like the Institute for Pacific Relations, its method of work is that of the common study of problems. National groups, economists and social scientists, conduct these studies, and their efforts are co-ordinated by the Secretariat of the Institute. A big meeting, prepared by a preliminary conference, brings the representatives of the national organisations and some leading international institutes together every two years, and the research work pursued by them is thus completed and supplemented by a joint discussion, which is carried on in the spirit of the scholar and the scientist. In this way a conference was held in London last year which was devoted to the problem of 'The State and Economic Life.' Another conference held also at London this Spring devoted its time to the study of a political problem which may be called the gravest problem of our epoch, that of 'Collective Security.' There is no problem which has received greater attention at Geneva itself and in the Chancelleries. But the function of the Conference on International Studies is precisely to free this work from immediate political considerations, to examine in the spirit of the historian the facts of recent years, and to bring out the points which are essential for the future of the relations between the peoples.

I could quote other examples still, such as, for instance, a study being carried on at the present time, with the aid of anthropologists and ethnologists of repute belonging to a dozen different nations, on the origins of Western civilisation; the object being to inform public opinion of the way in which, in the view of the scientists, the different ethnological groups in Europe came to share in a common civilisation.

But anyone who concerns himself with the organisation of international intellectual relations knows that the question which matters most—and you ladies and gentlemen know that better than anyone—is that of Education.

If the world is to rally round a moral doctrine which is to be valid not only for the ordinary relations between men, but also for an international order, then obviously it is necessary that the young generations should be brought up in such a way as to understand this great necessity and to acquire a spirit of international comprehension. On the other hand,

the needs for contacts, for an exchange of information, methods and view-points between the education of the different countries, their organisations, and even the administrations to which they are responsible, is immediately apparent.

For these reasons, a large part is now reserved on the programme of work of the Institute to questions of education. It is thus that a centre of university information has been created with a view to providing a regular exchange of information on everything relating to students and professors in foreign countries, their travels and contacts, university summer courses, etc. For the same reasons, a permanent committee for higher education has been set up under the chairmanship of Sir Frank Heath. This committee has been investigating for the last two years the problems relating to the organisation of the universities and scientific research in general. The Committee is now in possession of first-hand information collected by the directors or responsible representatives of the great universities of the U.S.A., Great Britain, Sweden, Russia, France and Italy. The results of this enquiry will be published. This document shall not merely provide documentary information, but will illustrate all the progress which has been made in recent years in the organisation of advanced study and also in the equipment placed at students' disposal, thus enabling a judgment to be formed in regard to the advantages of the different systems at present in force.

The activity of the Organisation of Intellectual Co-operation also covers the other branches of education—secondary and primary education. Those questions are dealt with by the League's educational information centres. On the initiative of the Institute, national information centres have been set up in thirty-eight countries. Those centres are, so to speak, living records of public education. The purpose of each of those national centres is to furnish the educators and institutions of the different countries, who apply to them, information offering every guarantee of accuracy concerning education in their respective countries.

In order to maintain a liaison between the national centres a Committee of experts for the co-ordination of the educational information centres meets from time to time at the Institute which acts as the international secretariat of the national centres.

Among the principal achievements due to this international collaboration between the centres, special mention ought to

be made of the 'International Educational Bibliography' recently published by the Institute. This first essay has been confined to notable books and important articles published in the year 1934 concerning national education systems (legislation, administration, finance) and international relations in the matter of education (teaching of international relations, exchange of students and teachers, broadcasting, educational films, etc.). This international bibliography will be extended next year to the philosophy of education and the methods of education.

In the course of the last two years, the national centres have made it a practice to exchange their publications and documents through the agency of the Institute. They have also under the impulse of the Institute initiated effective measures in order to promote international understanding through schools.

The Institute has also been trying to co-ordinate on similar lines the travels and exchanges of school pupils. There have been established in fourteen countries national centres entrusted with the task of co-ordinating in their respective countries the activities of organisations which concern themselves with travels and exchanges of school pupils. The Institute acts as an international secretariat for these national centres and is entrusted with the task of comparing and co-ordinating of methods.

An international school correspondence has been organised on similar lines. National centres of correspondence have been established in fifteen countries, a permanent committee, whose secretariat is the Institute, acts as *agent de liaison* between the National centres.

Special mention should here be made of the teaching of history and the revision of school text-books, one of the main tasks of the Paris Institute. As a first step the Institute undertook an inquiry in order to find out what had been done in the different countries, either by the governments, international or national organisations, groups of historians, educationists, in order to eliminate from school text-books passages likely to compromise international understanding. The results of this enquiry were published in 1933.

The Institute is now devoting its attention to positive aspects of the problem, namely to emphasize constructive action in favour of the preparation of school-books in a spirit of international accord. The Institute is at present collecting in various countries passages of text-books on certain delicate questions of history which in the opinion

of the scholars are objectively conceived. Those passages will be published and serve as an example of what can be done to teach history at the same time in an objective and comprehensive way.

Broadcasting and the cinematograph are capable of becoming invaluable auxiliary instruments in the field of education. This was recognised by the League of Nations when it formed its International Educational Cinematograph Institute in Rome. The task of inquiring into the educational aspects of broadcasting was entrusted by the committee on intellectual co-operation and the Assembly of the League to the Paris Institute.

In pursuance of the desire of the League, the Institute first conducted an enquiry among educators and organisers of school broadcasting in twenty-five countries concerning the subjects most suitable for school broadcasting, the methods used and the results obtained. These results have been published under the title 'School Broadcasting.' This book, devoted to the use of broadcasting in primary and secondary and higher education, represents an accumulation of experience which will enable all who are interested in school broadcasting to make their own comparative analysis and to find useful suggestions.

Wireless broadcasting must also be made to play its part in the raising of the standard of general culture of the public, for whose benefit the daily programmes are planned. How should educational programmes be designed and presented in order that they may awaken the interest and hold the attention of the public at large? To answer this question, the Institute invited a number of eminently qualified personalities to state their views on the possibilities of this educational work. 'The Educational rôle of Broadcasting,' published recently by the Institute, contains the results of this new enquiry.

In concluding this survey on the educational activities of the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, I would just briefly mention the co-operation of the League of Nations with China in the reform of its public education. There is no doubt that the nations soaked in Western culture are understanding more and more how much it is to their interests in this field to increase their spiritual contacts with distant countries without attempting in any way to get the latter to abandon their own culture, but with a view to getting them to share, by adaptation rather than by imitation, the advantages of contemporary educational methods.

This programme in its entirety may appear ambitious, especially in this time of economic and political crisis. As a matter of fact it is unfortunately far from being fully developed. But it may also be said that a period of crisis is richer than any other in favourable opportunities ; that the reactions of present evils are not purely negative ; and that they make the necessity for the peoples to understand each other and to know each other more clearly felt. It is for this reason that the Organisation of Intellectual Co-operation desires, with the help of its natural defenders, and first among these the educationists, to occupy an increasingly large place in the League of Nations and in international relations in general."

The Training of Teachers for the New World Relations

Dr. H. Lester Smith (Dean, School of Education,
Indiana University)

"Many of the puzzling problems that confront society to-day are centuries old. Continuously through the ages they have faced men and have defied solution. But the mere facts of their hoary age and of the failure to solve them thus far do not prove that these problems cannot now be successfully met by new methods, new principles and the new knowledge of men and the physical universe, which are becoming universal.

However, besides these old problems in world relations that men have struggled with for ages, there are many new relations, with their accompanying new problems, which call for our best efforts toward a satisfactory solution.

The most genuinely new element in world relations is to be found in the fact that world relations are frankly and openly recognised as such, together with the fact of a rather widespread and increasingly popular knowledge of world relations and alertness to the problems, domestic and international, which these world relations generate. The newest and the most potent as well as the most hopeful factor in world relations is the increased quantity and improved quality of education, especially with reference to world conditions and their complex and vital interrelations.

Before discussing the specific training of teachers which our world relations demand, it may be profitable to give something more than a passing glance to world conditions and needs as they actually are to-day, whether these situations be new or old. It seems that a logical and more adequate understanding of our total world problem can best be had by a brief examination of the various sub-problems which for convenience may be listed under three rather broad but well defined categories: the political, economic, and social relationships of the whole world.

For ages the resentment of the underprivileged has been confused and inarticulate. But the slow percolation of literacy to the masses, bearing with it the materials for thinking and the instruments of expression, has been the peculiar service of education to the cause of freedom and democracy. Not the overthrow of this or that form of government, not the abandonment of any particular type of exploitation, but the dissemination of facts, the world wide spread of knowledge of actual conditions, basic rights, and the thought processes by which power is wielded for good or ill, have been the sure signs of advancement and the pledges of the ultimate triumph of the rights of the common man.

It seems perfectly clear that the most fundamental of all political problems, the soil in which will be found the tap-roots of all other political problems, whether local, national or world wide, is the permanent recognition of the rights of the many, which is always disputed and if possible circumvented by the selfish, favoured few. Contest over rights is really a struggle for power. It is older than the Greek civilization. It is as old as society itself. It is the major objective to-day on a thousand fronts in all the affairs of men.

If men, the apparent leaders and the real rulers, were sufficiently wise and possessed of sturdy enough honesty; if the opportunities, rewards, and honours usually attendant upon successful dishonesty were emphatically removed; if disinterested, self-effacing service were crowned with the glory and honour it deserves, the rights and powers of the people might more safely be placed in the hands of talented leaders whose ability is not questioned. But the necessary wisdom and uprightness do not yet obtain. And until the principle of operating the world for the good of all shall become established, both in theory and in fact, as noble, honourable, indisputably right, and not to be violated or ignored under any circumstances, the unnecessary delegation

of any individual or local prerogative must be accompanied by grave possibilities.

What has just been said is not meant as an advocacy of the recall of faith in our fellow men nor to decry a generous attitude on the part of anyone. It means rather that if faith is to bear practical and universal fruitage, it must be everywhere prevalent. But the grace of generosity is most beautiful when it is manifested by the rich man and the strong nation. In fact the poor and underprivileged cannot be generous with that which they do not possess, while a nation, weak of arm but attractive as a market or as a source of raw material, which is forced at the muzzle of a gun into a semblance of acquiescence is not manifesting either goodwill or generosity but is merely choosing the lesser of two evils and perchance biding its time until circumstances become favourable for throwing off by violence the galling and hateful yoke. Only the rich and the strong can take any effective initiative in the matter of generosity, but because they are blessed with the ability to take the initiative they are also burdened thereby with the obligation to do so. Our faith in the essential goodness of the hearts of men is so strong that we even dare to hope that the effective initiative will be taken by those who alone can.

The direst need of the world to-day is the same as it has been for generations. It is peace—universal, permanent, unthreatened peace—not peace by force of arms nor because some may fear defeat, but peace with liberty, justice, fairness, and even generosity for all; peace on the basic concept of operating the business of the whole world for the mutual well being of all. Some may erroneously conceive such a programme to be based on cowardice, weakness, and impracticality, but the truth is that this way leads over the very heights of the world and only the bravest and strongest dare take it; and the wise and discerning tell us that the whole world must wake, is even now beginning to waken, from its drugged slumber and learn its most elemental and fundamental lesson, namely, that the Golden Rule is the only practical procedure known to civilised society. Few things about which men fight are worth the cost of violence. Practically every worthy gain secured by military victory could have been realised more fully and more surely by peaceful means. We realise now that the millions of men slain and the billions of wealth sacrificed in the recent deplorable war might have been saved, had the principle we are advocating been in general use. So far as the whole world is concerned we are exactly

where we were in the first decade of this century except that we are much poorer, are troubled by deeper fears, and our hearts are being gnawed to shreds by uglier and more ignoble hates. What a harvest from the sowings of the advocates of greed and coercion !

All the talk about reparations, debts, credits, limitation of armaments, all solemn pacts for the outlawry of war and all multitudinous 'agreements' made with expressed or implied 'reservations,' unless and until we can agree honestly to run our world for the good of all, both small and great, cannot bring us to the desired haven of permanent peace.

The chief preparedness every nation on earth needs is clean hands and an honest heart.

If peace is to prevail, if genuine peace is ever to come, the rich and powerful nations, led by their rich and powerful citizens, must take the initiative in basic fairness, in common honesty.

Force will not bring freedom. Peace cannot be founded on coercion. Partiality destroys justice. But justice, freedom, and peace must prevail or man is doomed. What we advocate here may be held by some as softness, but it is the softness of sunlight with the quickening and sustaining power of sunlight.

At least this much is clear : there can be no complete nor long continued selfish imperialism of any one tongue, or colour, or flag over all. Every race, every nation has a priceless worth and is capable of making a unique contribution to all. The only imperialism that can prevail, the only arrangement that is fit to exist, is a world family of free and happy nations, between which fair and sweet reasonableness is the only arbiter, and within and among which mutual respect and generous helpfulness are the cohering forces.

Such is the quality and scope of local and world politics which educators must know and champion if we are to be safe and sane custodians of expanding hearts and the public mind.

The closer to our own lives we can bring the major world problems the more likely we are to arrive at just and lasting solutions. We dare not forget or ignore the fact that an exploited neighbour nation, like a man robbed and beaten until half dead, can be neither an active customer nor a reciprocal supplier of economic needs. Furthermore, these problems that reach across national borderlines are but extensions of similar domestic problems, as we shall see presently.

A mandate given to, or a protectorate accepted by, a nation affords a thousand opportunities for elements of sheer beauty and permanent good. There is nothing especially abstract or mentally difficult in the premises; rather it is very simple, for it is altogether a matter of common honesty, fairness, and goodwill. Likewise a nation's military protection of its citizens who operate as independent *entrepreneurs* on the soil of other nations is a delicate matter and one fraught with possibilities of much evil and ill will. It seems clear that the acceptance of risk should accompany the seeking of industrial improvement and economic profit. Business which ventures with this understanding on to foreign soil is much more likely to go in a friendly spirit and to operate with fairness; such business is welcomed everywhere, and any business which is not both fair and friendly is not fit to operate anywhere and is unworthy of protection. A business whether domestic or foreign which does not seek to serve its *clientèle* as well as it seeks its own profit is an exploitation and no people should be asked or expected to tolerate it. This whole matter goes back to our fundamental concept, arrived at in all good will and with the best intentions in the world, namely, any and all business everywhere should be conducted for the good of all and to the detriment of none.

If sheer right becomes the basic and universal standard (and that is the definite ideal of education), the solution of what hitherto have been deemed knotty problems becomes clearer and easier. For example, in a world business operated on the standard of sheer rightness, if the question should arise as to whether or not a particular nation should subsidise a certain business over a critical or experimental period, the matter of profit to that business or good to that nation will not be the sole nor even the chief consideration. Rather the determining and final factor for consideration will be whether the granting of such subsidy will result in a total greater good to the whole world. World statesmanship, the highest type of national patriotism, demands not only that the interests of one's own nation be advanced but also that no others be injured. The arguments of national independence and of national self-sufficiency are beside the point; no nation is profited by ultra-independence and self-sufficiency. Who would have his country absolutely self-contained and completely isolated with respect to the rest of the world?

This is not idle day dreaming. It is sober and practical

reasoning and will result in sound practice. Too long men have acquiesced weakly saying that many things which are right are impractical, that we cannot make right things prevail because people will insist on being selfish and will refuse to do that which is right and generous. Through more and better education we can and must reorganise our world on the bed-rock principle that what is fair and right can be done and nothing else will be tolerated because nothing else is permanently feasible.

If we turn now to a consideration of grave domestic economic affairs which press upon us daily for attention, we shall find similar forces in operation which call for identical principles of control. Just as world business should be conducted in the interest of all, so too the business within any nation, whether financed by domestic or foreign capital, should most certainly be prosecuted primarily in the light of the welfare of all the citizens of that nation; any business not willing to operate honestly should not be tolerated for a day.

Such a deeply fundamental charter of business necessitates the mutual respect and heartiest co-operation of all the elements involved for the common good.

Under the guise of 'making a living,' many have failed to live well because their feverish struggle to amass great wealth has let the 'deceitfulness of riches' choke the joy of living out of their hearts. Rewards other than money, and honours other than crude power which the possession of money yields, can be designed by an intelligently and benevolently planned society which will challenge the finest powers of the ablest minds.

The functions and purpose of money in business and in private living deserve fresh and deeper study. But whatever may be the measures put into effect to steady the present monetary uncertainties, the principle of the greatest good for all the nations involved should be followed. There is increasing need in this field for conference and for international agreement.

Closely allied and interrelated with the political and economic problems which we have just been considering are four distinct social problems of paramount importance, namely, the worthy use of leisure, child development and welfare, what may be called the woman movement, and old age protection.

It is the rankest folly to imagine that society can endure,

much less thrive, with multiplied millions idle, hungry, desperate, while science and machinery, in the hands of a few, produce vast surpluses which the masses cannot buy because they are idle and therefore lack the means. Somehow the surpluses and profits must be shared in an atmosphere of honour and of right. Any other proposal lacks intelligence and cannot be entertained except by closing the mind to the facts. Once more be it said, we must operate this world for the good of all its inhabitants.

Let us suppose for a moment that one supremely rich man owned all the world—all the land, gold, buildings, roads, means of communication; all the patents, machinery, devices, formulæ, processes; all the watercourses, fish, animals—everything, except the two billion other people. And let us suppose, further, that somehow he could manage to retain title, possession and control of all his vast domains and their equipment. What good or glory would such possessions bring the owner? And how could he organise, administer, and operate his world to his own satisfaction and profit? Manifestly, he could do nothing alone. It would be necessary to delegate authority, extend credit, share profits, and grant his fellows the right to live, labour, consume and enjoy. It is inconceivable that such a landlord should desire that anyone should endure misery or suffer lack if these things could be avoided. Nor is it reasonable to suppose that our hypothetical world-owner should prefer affluence for, say, half of the population and misery and want for the other half. If we might suppose, further, that this world-owner likewise exercised absolutely autocratic power of life and death, it is clear that such a one, if enlightened, honourable and just, would bestow upon all to whom he granted life the further boon of an opportunity to earn a decent living. It appears to be undebatable that if one man owned the whole world, it would be profitable and satisfying to him to operate the world for the well being of all the people. Exploitation would appear as ridiculous. Should it be discovered that, due to the use of machines, science and thoughtful procedures, the total work of the world could be done and adequate economic goods and profits produced on a part-time working schedule, it is doubtful if that discovery would be deemed a grave or unfortunate matter. Rather would we expect universal rejoicing over the fact that the minor energies of men would yield a living while their major attention could be given to enriching the quality of their lives.

It is hard to understand how or why the same basic considerations fail to apply to a world under either a common or a mixed ownership. In either case, the proposition that the world should be operated for the good of all stands unshaken. Whether ownership lies in one or all, in few or many, the greatest profits (even in money) will be had through adjustments which augment and supply the increased wants of the masses of men. This means sharing work, profits, goods, joys and leisure.

As science has advanced, there has been a steady decrease of need for the labour of children in industry. But child labour has tended to persist because of faulty distribution of the increased goods which have been created by scientific and mechanical improvements. When the father could no longer secure steady employment adequate for the family's needs, the children and even the mother have been thrust into sweatshop, mine or factory because bread and shelter were imperative. The story of the demoralising effects of the struggles and privations due to these maladjustments makes a sad and bitter chapter in the history of our civilisation. Men have been deliberately tardy in recognising the essential brotherhood of man, and this very tardiness caused a frightful rate of child mortality and prevented the proper physical development and mental training of children which in turn retarded the progress of our race.

But a better day has dawned. Children's clinics, nurseries, hospitals, and opportunity schools in which the best that money and science can provide, are appearing almost everywhere. This is partly due to the fact that we have learned that child labour is not needed to do the work of the world, that our greatest treasures lie in the lives of our children, and that some way must be found to support the family without exploiting childhood and without denying to children their proper birthright of sound, well-nourished bodies and healthy, well-trained minds.

Free, absolutely free, and for want of a better and more accurate term, 'equal' educational opportunity for all was the dream of our fathers, our own hope, and bids fair to become a blessed reality in the next generations. Herein lies our God-given opportunity; to have direct and untrammelled access to every expanding mind to develop it, not to become exactly like every or any other mind but as completely as possible to become that for which it is best fitted by nature. This is the true democracy to attain which the world has been bathed in tears and blood.

and share in building a world programme that will break the circle by removing want and the fear of want and thus destroy the motives for greed and exploitation which for ages have fomented hate and precipitated violence. The programme contemplated—operating the whole world for the good of all—will provide proper development for children, normal and satisfying work and leisure for mature men and women, and dignified sustenance and care for all who are too old to labour or from other causes helpless or infirm. In no case does this mean something for nothing. Proper safeguards can be devised by society to protect itself against parasites who are unwilling to work or otherwise socially unfit. But it appears as absolutely undebatable that every human being, regardless of the colour of his skin, the geographical location of his residence, or the financial status of his parents, is entitled as a matter of individual right and of social security to a happy and normal childhood, a busy and profitable maturity, and untroubled rest in his old age. If our society cannot move in the direction of these conditions of living then our society is so weak and unworthy as to deserve to be replaced by some other scheme which will be fair and strong enough to serve the needs of all.

It is axiomatic that if the schools of the world are to contribute to a total world programme conceived and conducted in the interest of all, the teachers of our schools must be wholehearted champions of that programme, and they must be well informed in its underlying philosophy and furnished with the practical solutions of the problems which a programme of universal and democratic service is sure to encounter. A question of primary importance has to do with sources from which future teachers are to be drawn. A genuinely democratic world programme, honestly organised and faithfully administered, means the death of all special and unmerited privilege. But this does not mean that teachers who shall be enthusiastic about universal fairness cannot be had from the ranks of those who now possess special privilege, because many have arisen from this very quarter who understand thoroughly and denounce emphatically a society conceived in selfishness and conducted by brute force. They see clearly that such a society cannot endure, and they are public spirited and honourable enough to hold that a selfish society ought not to endure. They are neither afraid nor ashamed to cast the weight of their great influence on the side of right. In their hearts and at their hands we find the readiest and most potent force for remaking

society in truly heroic mould. From this talented and powerful group there should come, in the future, as there have in the past, many of the really great and prominent educational leaders, the creative thinkers who shall be able to do as well as plan what should be done.

Since all people are to be served by the education of all who are educable, all ranks should be represented in our future supply of teachers, in so far as this is practicable. But it is not practicable to employ inferior teachers. From the very nature of the task to be performed, only those who are physically well, mentally alert, and morally upright can be considered as possible teachers. Not only should candidates for the office of teacher give evidence of having sound physical, mental and moral health in order to enter the profession, but the most rigid surveillance must be had to ensure that these qualities shall be maintained throughout the period of active service of every teacher.

How to attract and retain the able and trustworthy as teachers will become comparatively simple when teacher recruiting is made more a matter of selection. To be a teacher should be considered one of the highest honours one can achieve ; and every teacher should receive a compensation commensurate with his worth and service.

It is probably unnecessary to do more than merely say that the formal training of every teacher for his specific and particular task should be as definite and as thorough as it is possible to make it. The product of the teacher's labour—healthy, happy and successful men and women—is too precious, and failure is too tragic, to countenance for a moment any unnecessary error and bungling on the part of those who attempt to teach. There will probably always be an abundance of things we do not know, and the very ablest teachers will be keenly aware of their inability to attain perfection, but it is certainly inexcusable for one to essay to teach without first acquiring all the information available that will contribute to a larger measure of success.

But the successful teacher of to-day and to-morrow must know far more than his own properly narrowed field of specialization. Five very definite fields might be suggested of which every progressive teacher should know the broad outlines and at least some of the major facts, problems, and leaders.

1. At the head of the list may be placed the physical sciences, and following them the young, vigorous, rather

intangible science of psychology. No choice is made among the various 'schools' of psychology; perhaps every camp has some precious bit of the whole truth about the mind of mankind and the proper ways of dealing with it; as yet, the whole story of the human mind is not known by all the psychological 'schools' combined—the ablest workmen in the field are frank to tell us that—and no one to-day would be so bold as to claim everything for his own group. Nevertheless, the wise teacher will seek to learn and use the best that can be gleaned from the many divisions within each of the two vast fields of pure and applied psychology; for some years to come, no doubt, every teacher will evolve a psychology of his own as he seeks to understand, harmonise, and use what the psychological leaders are saying. In any event, the live teacher will neither ignore nor neglect psychology or the other sciences.

2. In like manner, the teacher who is well-equipped to make a worthy contribution to the world under present conditions will know the social sciences, by which is meant world and domestic politics, history, sociology and economics. We understand the present and predict the future in the light of what the past teaches us. No one can have intelligent and independent convictions relative to world conditions who is ignorant of the background from which our present situations have come. No one can conceive of future social improvements who is unacquainted with conditions as they actually exist to-day.

3. A man's dreams are ever braver than his deeds, and air-castles are better than sky-scrapers by far. Truly 'where there is no vision, the people perish.' But for the hopes and ideals with which our hearts have played while our hands were tied, our race would have perished long ago; therefore teachers need to know the literature of the world in order to understand what man is and what he hopes to be; they should know the songs that have cheered him and the music that has brought him comfort. It is well to know the colours and shapes and sights and sounds that have delighted him in spite of his toil, suffering and disappointment. Hence, the broad, general culture that the good and effective teacher must possess will include a knowledge of the literature and other fine arts of the world.

4. In this catalogue of the elements to be found in the proper training of modern teachers we are going progressively

deeper into the heart of the matter. We are going from the concrete to the intangible, from the physical, through the psychic, and on to the spiritual. And next in order in this series stands the contributions of the world's first-rate philosophers. After all the centuries, however generous we may be inclined to be, in all probability there have been few original thinkers whose opinions and solutions really matter to-day. From one point of view it is a pathetic showing; yet what we have from them makes a priceless treasure, and it should be in the possession of every truly great teacher. A thorough course in the history of philosophy, some acquaintance with modern or current philosophies, and a serious effort to arrive at a tentative working personal philosophy are not too much to expect of teachers who hope to serve the world to-day.

5. Because religion is higher and deeper and more vital than philosophy and all the rest, we should expect to find the number of those who have spoken originally and with saving and edifying power in the realm of religion to be small indeed, and it is even so. None has been heard universally; only three are heard to-day in more than one major nation; only one has a considerable and growing following on every continent.

Yet the really excellent teacher will insist on having a working knowledge of the chief organized religions that have existed in the history of the world. He will want to know something of several of the religions that are now living and active, as a matter of liberal culture, and particularly as a background for sympathetic understanding of and co-operation with all the peoples of the world. To get this understanding, teachers will have to acquaint themselves with the authoritative sacred scriptures of these living religions of the world.

But there is need for more than merely a cold, intellectual contact with religion. The ideal teacher is imbued with a lofty religious spirit. To organize and administer the affairs of the world for the good of all and make no unfair distinctions, requires a sincere and practical acceptance of the brotherhood of man, for no other conviction can supply the necessary motivation. By taking the universal brotherhood of man as a motivating ideal and the Golden Rule as a working principle, the problems of the world, both new and old, can be solved to the satisfaction and benefit of all."

Fostering International Friendship in the Secondary School

Miss Jessie Sentney (New Trier Township High
School, Winnetka, Illinois)

"In order to foster international goodwill and understanding, it is necessary to secure international co-operation in all educational enterprises. To accomplish this, we must educate from the youngest to the oldest. Students must be trained to understand other peoples, to grasp the meaning of their problems, and to appreciate their contributions to the good of the world. If these students could only come in direct contact with the peoples of various countries, then our problem would be easier.

Much, however, has been done in the kindergarten and lower grades to foster international goodwill through the fine work of the Junior Red Cross, which now is an active force in the schools of more than fifty countries, through the Committee on World Friendship among Children, and through the co-operation of teachers, school administrators, and in some places through the national and local governments.

This spring I sent out a questionnaire to three hundred colleges and high schools, located in every state in the union, to find out how much they were doing along international lines and to get suggestions as to what they felt could be done in the future. It was very gratifying to get almost ninety per cent. return of the questionnaire. This fact alone showed their interest.

The colleges and universities varied their programmes, and every college but two offered courses promoting international understanding, such as International Law, International Relations, Comparative Governments, International Economic Policies, etc.

It was interesting to note that the small college was doing its bit just as well as the universities. The smaller colleges did not offer the *variety* of courses but made up in sincerity of purpose.

One type of activity that has created great interest in many schools is the Model League of Nations Assembly or Institute. A few years ago Miss Wooley, President of Mount Holyoke, invited several different women's colleges

to send delegates to a Model League of Nations Institute to be held at Mount Holyoke, each college representing a different country and some sending as many as fifteen or twenty delegates. Following as closely as possible the procedure of the League of Nations in Geneva, in respect to the actual programme, the delegates seek a logical solution to the difficulties that face the League. The list of questions scheduled for discussion is posted weeks in advance, so that the delegates may be well prepared, and in discussing these problems, the attitude taken is not an idealistic but a realistic one. This year the questions discussed were Control of Munitions, Propaganda, the Terrorists' Activities, Regional Pacts, Non-Tariff Trade Barriers and the Forty-Hour Week Plan. So much interest has been aroused by this type of institute that it has become an annual affair for some of these Eastern women's colleges, and has been followed by other women's and men's colleges in different sections of the United States.

Another plan growing in favour in the United States is the American adventure of spending the Junior year abroad under faculty supervision. This idea was started by the University of Delaware in 1923-24, when eight of their students went to France to study. This plan has proved to be a success, and other Eastern schools, including Smith, Haverford and the University of Rochester are following it. These students must have an intensive training in the French language before they can qualify, and only those who pass the competitive exam. with high standing can go. They study at the Sorbonne for one year, and full credit is allowed at the American university. Perhaps if the different countries could come to a definite understanding on the important question of equivalence of degrees, more colleges would follow this plan.

In this same questionnaire, I asked how many schools offer scholarships to foreign students to study in the United States. Thirty-five per cent. of all the schools are doing so, which I think is very gratifying. Several said that they had granted scholarships in years past, but due to the depression had to give them up; however, they hoped to be able to do so again when business conditions improved. Under suggestions on this questionnaire as to what can be done in the future to increase international goodwill and understanding, seventy-five per cent. of these schools said, 'Offer more scholarships and have more exchanges with foreign students and teachers.' This large percentage

certainly shows the interest and tendency of the American college student. Some of the colleges expressed the desire to grant a scholarship but did not know how to go about it.

In France in 1929 I was told authoritatively that the government distributed, through the Ministry of Public Instruction, a scholarship and reimbursement fund, benefiting 440 students of twenty countries (313 of them to Russians) studying in universities and technical high schools of France. France has also offered Travelling scholarships to their own graduate students for travel abroad. England, Spain, Italy and Bulgaria have done likewise, and perhaps there are other European countries.

Many countries have promoted academic exchanges between two nations. May I mention just a few at this time—Austro-England Interchange Committee of Vienna and the corresponding committee in England, the Austrian-French Academic Committee, Netherlands-France, Portugal-German, German-Spanish, Anglo-Spanish, Argentino-Norte Americano, Franco-Chinois, Anglo-France and many others.

Some of the National Societies that have been outstanding in the results they have achieved are: (1) The English-speaking Union, founded in 1918 to strengthen relations between Great Britain and her Dominions and America. The Education Committee has arranged many exchanges; three of these exchanges were made in our own school, and were most worth-while. (2) The Norden, which encourages university exchanges between Norway, Sweden and Denmark. (3) The Pan-American Union.

International understanding has been furthered through the excellent work of a long list of international organisations, such as (1) The League of Nations and its Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. It has encouraged student interchange and exchange and has been the means of establishing National University Offices. (2) The Directors' meetings of National University Offices (including thirteen European countries and three American countries). (3) Institute of International Education (financed by the Carnegie Endowment), organised to develop a better understanding in the United States of the problems and difficulties of other peoples. (4) International Association of University Women. (5) International Federation of League of Nations Societies, its purpose being the supporting and making known the League. (6) International Confederation of students: its object is to gain a complete and intimate understanding between the students of the world. (7) The

Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. (8) The International House (quite a new idea for universities) three of which I know. One in New York, in the neighbourhood of Columbia University, one at the University of Chicago, and one at the University of California, all built by John D. Rockefeller. All these are filling a great need to foster closer international friendship, and here one finds university students from all over the world. Movies in foreign languages, lectures on international subjects given by experts from different countries, and informal discussions form part of the recreational activities. (9) An extension of the International House idea is the *University City*, composed of National Hostels, where students and teachers may live very cheaply. The one at Madrid and at Paris are the only two I have visited. (10) The League of Nations, which provides materials for university, college and high school discussions, debates, essays and the Model League of Nations already mentioned. The high school essay contests on the League of Nations have excited great interest all over our country, and every year several thousand papers are submitted to the judges. The national first prize is a summer's trip to Europe, and what high school boy or girl does not covet such a prize! I am proud to say that the winner of this year's contest is a girl from my own home city. The League sponsors an International Summer School at Geneva, which offers a wonderful opportunity for students to study all about the League. (11) Then there is a Geneva School of International Studies established in 1924, where students may study contemporary problems for a period of eight weeks. Many colleges in this country send students to this school, and as many as eighty scholarships have been granted each year by the International School itself. (12) Establishment of International Hostels has contributed to international student contact. (13) International Student Travel which encourages international summer camps, and international conferences are becoming more popular and are a great help to increase international understanding. (14) The American Friends' Service Committee sent out last summer fourteen Peace Caravans of students, which was not only an interesting experiment but very worth-while. (15) The International Boy Scout Jamborees held every four years in a different country. (16) Many international relations clubs conferences are held each year in different universities and cities. Some of the most outstanding men in America are in the Programmes, and I know of no better way to get so

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much knowledge in so short a time as attending one of these conferences.

Now if this wave of international interest has so impregnated the colleges and universities, why should it not be spread through the high schools, to those students where only one out of every forty gets a chance to finish college? Why should this large group, deprived of a college degree, be denied this opportunity for greater international understanding? From this large group will come many leaders of our next generation, and if we ever expect to have peace and international goodwill we must have internationally-minded citizens and leaders.

What have the high schools done along international lines up to the present time, you perhaps are asking? We do know that the enrolment in the departments of Politics, Economics and History in high schools has greatly increased, which shows that our students are more interested in public questions and public life than ever before. It is important that they should be more interested, but there is danger of their becoming narrowly chauvinistic, and it is our duty as educators to see that these students get at the same time a broader and keener understanding of other nations and other civilisations.

In this same questionnaire mentioned above, which was sent to high schools as well as to colleges and universities, I found that international understanding was not so much stressed in any special courses such as International Law or International Relations, but was developed through general courses in world history, modern Europe, and through the language courses of modern French, German, Spanish and Italian. However, many of them are sponsoring certain activities such as clubs and exhibits, which arouse even greater interest perhaps to a world understanding than any prescribed study course.

Many of the high schools answering the questionnaire have such activities as International Relations Clubs, Debates on International Subjects, Movies, Travel talks, etc, current event programmes, essay contests on League of Nations which I mentioned before, exhibits in art or programmes of music and folk-dances in the Music and Physical Education departments. Some of the schools carry on correspondence with students in foreign countries which has aroused great interest, and some have exchanged exhibits with other countries through the Junior Red Cross organisations; others have, through the work of the Committee on World Friendship

among Children, sent treasure chests to the Philippines, friendship school bags to Mexico, and dolls to Japan.

Our Junior College, Principia, located at St. Louis, Mo., is very international minded and progressive; it began publishing in 1923 a monthly bulletin called 'Progress at Principia,' 50,000 of which they send to every State in the union and to forty-five other countries in Europe, Asia, Africa, North and South Americas and Australia. It has a very interesting museum called 'The School of Nations,' in which is displayed a fine collection of dolls depicting the dress of various nationalities and periods. One very fine exhibit is a complete collection of Japanese Boys' and Girls' Festival Dolls. Other valuable material, including books, fabrics, pottery, costumes, and an international flag collection, which is very complete, although only started in 1930. So interested have been friends of Principia in this international project which extends from the Kindergarten through the College that one man has given 150,000 dollars for a 'School of Nations' Building, and the income from a fund of 100,000 dollars for the furthering of these activities. What this school is doing, other schools can do. Let us get our citizens and school patrons interested in these international projects, and then we can accomplish much more.

Under suggestions from the high schools, the following were not only interesting and valuable from an international standpoint, but all of them are *possible*, if we educators are willing 'to put our shoulders to the wheel,' and work so as to make such suggestions materialise.

Many suggested the following :

(1) International Correspondence—some adding that we increase the facilities for getting in touch with foreign correspondents, as some teachers had found this rather difficult and unsatisfactory.

(2) More student Regional Conferences.

(3) More Travel Movies.

(4) Lectures, debates, symposiums on international subjects.

(5) International Relations Clubs (Federate these clubs).

(6) More books and pamphlets on conditions in other countries, added to the libraries.

(7) Radio Broadcasts (but the value of these you will hear discussed this afternoon).

(8) More well-informed speakers for assembly programmes.

(9) Exhibits, especially industrial, showing why each country must depend upon the other.

(10) Encouraging of stamp clubs among students.

What a wonderful list of suggestions to foster international goodwill, all of which could be carried out in many schools. But may I add another: the Summer Travel Scholarship, which would be a fine beginning and would result later in the exchange of students during the school year.

If seventy-five per cent. of the colleges which answered the questionnaire felt the exchange of students most worthwhile, why not extend a similar idea to the *high school* boy or girl, who may never receive a college diploma? You will perhaps agree with me that the idea is excellent, but how can it be done?

Why can't we enlist some of the service clubs in the different countries, say the Rotarians or Chambers of Commerce, to provide such a scholarship for a boy or girl in their community high school? Probably one organisation might not feel it could finance the whole amount; then enlist several to share the expense.

Some countries might get their governments to sponsor such a scholarship. What is Italy doing now? Giving two-month travel scholarships to four or five American high school students who are studying Italian in the high schools. 'The scholarship not only gives them a delightful two months' tour of Italy, but the government also provides for a chaperon from the time they sail from America until they return to New York. What parent would not covet such an opportunity for his son or daughter!

In this connection I will quote an extract from an important Chicago daily, which was printed just the day I left America:

'A movement to bring a picked group of children from Finland on a visit to America, as a laudatory

gesture in recognition of that country's integrity in repaying War debt instalments, was announced yesterday by Raymond J. Peacock, publisher of a north-west side newspaper.

Elmer A. Forsberg, Finnish Consul, has agreed to act as treasurer of a fund to be raised by contributions from interested Americans, Peacock said. Possibly one hundred children, to be selected by the Finnish Government, will be brought over and given a coast-to-coast trip here, according to the plans. Peacock estimated the cost will be \$15,000 to \$20,000. A committee now is being organized to determine the method of fund solicitation which it is proposed will be nation-wide contributions.'

This is directly in line with what I propose, and what better way could we create friendships among high school students from different countries than by actually *visiting* and *living* in their countries? You would have the same results as those I mentioned regarding the Austrian girl who sailed from America in March carrying back deep friendship and a better understanding of the American boy and girl, and leaving behind with our boys and girls an interest in Austria and a desire to know and understand better the problems confronting the country to-day.

We all realise the value of one country understanding and helping another. Many years ago one of our Presidents said: 'Isolation is no longer possible. God and man have linked the nations together.' It was President Wilson who said in 1916: 'The interests of all nations are ours. We are partners with the rest.'

Who could better have expressed the secret of international friendship than the American writer, Walt Whitman when he said: 'It seems to me that if I could *know* these men in other lands, I should become attached to them, as I do to men in my own land.'

If we are to advance, it must be by a closer sense of unity with all men everywhere, with an understanding and acknowledgment of common duties, common obligations and common responsibilities, and how can we better acquire this understanding and these responsibilities than by educating those students of the secondary schools of to-day (many of whom will be leaders of to-morrow) to a greater and a broader world understanding!"

The Duties and Responsibilities of the Teaching of International Co-operation in Educational Institutions

Miss W. Organ (Executive, N.U.T. ; Education Committee, League of Nations Union)

“ Education in the widest sense of the word begins at birth and continues through life. The fundamental aim of education is to fit the individual to be a good and efficient member of society, free to develop his own individuality, and who must contribute his quota to cultural and material wealth.

The aim and purpose of our education will follow from our social ideal. One of the outstanding features of the post war period was the earnest desire expressed in various ways to promote international understanding and world friendship. It is realised that there was a wider loyalty than that of national loyalty, and if any form of universal civilisation is to persist the national ideal must lead to the international ideal, a world united on a peace basis, submitting to a code of international law, in which war has been outlawed.

The League of Nations was established at Geneva and in part was a visible beginning of such a new order.

In the new order international co-operation was to be the normal method of conducting world affairs.

In pursuance of this ideal national and international organisations have sprung up, and, moreover, bodies organised nationally and internationally for special professional trade and occupational purposes have included this ideal among the aims and objects of their particular society.

All concerned with education must take cognizance of such a fundamental change in the outlook upon world relations, and educational organisations have stated their belief in the principles of peace in general and specific terms.

It is worthy to note that the World Federation of Education Associations has been used as an instrument or means whereby a plan of education which would produce understanding and goodwill among the nations might be evolved, and the work of the Herman-Jordan Committees since their inception has contributed in no small measure to promote international understanding and goodwill by education.

The question of education in its relation to world citizenship is of outstanding importance.

At the present moment we are seriously concerned that in certain countries in Europe teaching for world peace is being neglected, and more we see children being trained in a warlike spirit, taught military discipline and encouraged to applaud the glories of war. Therefore it is all the more essential that we should take note of the work that is being done at the present time to promote international goodwill and to teach world citizenship.

A brief review of what has been attempted in this country will assist us in appreciating more fully present day activities.

The N.U.T., in co-operation with other educational organizations, the League of Nations Union and other bodies mainly or entirely devoted to the promotion of peace, has been keenly interested in this question.

Historical

In 1923 the Annual Conference of the N.U.T. (2,000 delegates present) passed this resolution :

‘ This Conference declares its belief in the application of the principle of the League of Nations to international affairs.’

The following year the Conference approved the principles of the League of Nations and pledged itself to support and further the same ; and in 1925 the Conference expressed its opinion that at the then forthcoming Conference of the W.F.E.A. the representative of the Union should bring before the delegates the importance of the consideration of the ideals of the League of Nations by the children in the schools of all countries, for the purpose of impressing these ideals upon the future citizens of the world.

These resolutions demonstrate that the great body of teachers are in whole-hearted agreement with the principle of world peace.

In September, 1923, the Assembly of the League of Nations agreed unanimously to a resolution, the main part of which read : ‘ The Assembly urges its governments of the states members to arrange that the children and youth in their respective countries where such teaching is not given be made aware of the existence and aims of the League of Nations and the terms of the Covenant.’

In 1924 the then President of the Board of Education circulated a memorandum to all local education authorities and

governing bodies of secondary schools in England and Wales, in which he stated that the resolution of the Assembly has the full sympathy of His Majesty's Government and he gladly took this opportunity of recommending it to the favourable consideration of the authorities of the schools.

When in 1926 the proposal came before the Assembly of the League, a valuable lead was given by H.M. Government, which announced that a national conference would take place between the Board of Education and the local education authorities in England and Wales and include Scotland and Northern Ireland. Following this announcement, in 1927, the N.U.T. was one of the signatories together with the other major educational organisations, to the memorandum entitled 'Declaration concerning the Schools of Britain and the Peace of the World,' which was submitted to the Board of Education with the request that it should be considered by the National Conference.

The declaration included a statement that its signatories agreed with the League's experts on the main issue, that 'all children and young people before completing their formal education should learn something of the aims and work of the League of Nations, the terms of its covenant, and the recent growth of international co-operation,' and moreover were in substantial agreement with the detailed proposals except where they proposed executive action by administrative authorities which in this country are commonly left to the teachers, either to decide or to advise upon.

The final paragraph of the memorandum urged that the whole question of the teaching of the League of Nations in British schools of all types should be further and fully explored by a National Committee, including representatives of administrative authorities, the teaching profession and the League of Nations. This Committee was established and reported a year later. It endorsed the Declaration and made important recommendations. The full list is published in 'Teachers and World Peace.' It is worth while to note here the following suggestions:

That teachers should be given facilities to enable them to attend University or other courses in international relations such as those arranged by the League of Nations Union, and that in refresher courses in geography and history as at present arranged, reference should be made to the work of the League. That every local education authority should be provided with copies of the list of books suitable for children and teachers (L.N.U.) and that the handbook,

'Teachers and World Peace,' should be available for all teachers. That due consideration should be given to the right method of approach in various types of secondary school, and all schools should be advised to give serious consideration to the value of school celebrations, interchange of correspondence and school journeys, in developing world loyalty and promoting the spirit of international understanding.

The handbook, 'Teachers and World Peace,' has been very widely used by teachers and a third edition enlarged and revised was published in January, 1935. The N.U.T. distributed a copy to each of its 637 local associations.

Work of the Board of Education

The Board of Education in its handbook, 'Suggestions to Teachers,' has noted the desirability of bringing the facts of the existence and work of the League of Nations to pupils in schools, and the report on 'The Education of the Adolescent' by the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education stated that the growing sense of the interdependence of communities as shown in the work of the League of Nations should receive due prominence.

Since 1928 the education of the children and young people along these lines has continued throughout, and the freedom of the teacher, both as to the inclusion of a subject in the curriculum, and as to the method by which it should be taught, has been maintained. This has been a vital factor in making for success.

Teachers generally, having been convinced of the necessity of educating the rising generation in the spirit of goodwill of international co-operation, have given their best endeavours to the task.

Present-Day Activities

A survey of what is being done in educational institutions to-day should prove interesting and useful.

Recently the Education Committee of the League of Nations Union, on which are represented all the major education organisations in this country, set up a curriculum sub-committee which, with the aid of the subject panels, was to consider how best the subjects of the curriculum might be taught in relation to international understanding. The representative panels were set up to inquire into the method of teaching the various subjects of the curriculum from this standpoint.

The subjects under consideration were history, geography, modern languages, science, arts and crafts and physical education.

As a result of the deliberations a conference on education for world citizenship was called at the Guildhall, London, at the end of May this year.

The reports of the subjects panels were received, and papers read by experts in their own subjects to an audience remarkable for its widely representative character and its near approach to general agreement.

The main purpose underlying each paper was to demonstrate how it might be possible to present the subject-matter of each subject in such a form that the teaching of international understanding might be incorporated.

The report of the geography panel on 'Geography Teaching' in relation to world citizenship has already been published. The statement that the conception of geography as the study of the earth in relation to man may serve as a unifying idea, indicates the lines of the report which is intensely interesting and stimulating.

The report of the modern languages panel is also published and stresses the importance of teaching France not French, Germany not German, and it makes original suggestions on ways of using gramophone records, films, and other modern aids to make alive and familiar the national life and character of another country. It is difficult to quote from reports containing so many excellent suggestions.

But we would do well to remind ourselves that to-day in the words of the report, M. Flandin is not merely a name, we have heard his voice from Radio Paris ; Hitler has startled us with his tempestuous eloquence ; Moscow has introduced its musical Russian into our homes ; Madrid and Rome are waiting for us if we wish to hear them.

Formation of National Council on the Teaching of World Citizenship

At the conclusion of the conference a resolution was taken to set up a national council to continue the work already begun and 'The National Council on the Teaching of World Citizenship' which is to be set up will link all education and interests from the primary school to the university, and will be in close touch with the Geographical, Historical and Mathematical Associations and the other such bodies.

The conference also agreed, on the proposal of Professor Gilbert Murray, to ask H.M. Government to contribute to

the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, so that visits of teachers to advise on League teaching may be arranged from one country to another, and by this means it is hoped that countries backward in this respect will benefit from those with a more forward programme.

A comprehensive report is to be published in the immediate future.

This book will prove valuable to those teachers seeking through their own subjects to give their pupils the international outlook and prepare them to take their place in the intricate and changing structure of the modern world. Closely connected with this aspect of education is the attitude of the teacher. The modern teacher, having as his aim the desire to inculcate in his pupils the need for international goodwill, will reflect this aim in all his teaching, and will welcome this volume when published as one of his books of reference.

Textbooks

The question of textbooks has its place in education, and the modern teacher will always note any possible prejudice that may obtain in any particular book. But having regard to the wide use of textbooks by pupils of all ages, it is extremely important that such books shall be free from bias. The Assembly of the League of Nations in 1930 approved a proposal put forward by the sub-committee of experts, for the instruction of youth, the aims of the League of Nations, and endorsed by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, on 'the revision of school books effected with a view to the correction of passages harmful to a mutual understanding of the peoples and to a spirit of international unity.'

The International Institute, at the request of the Assembly, prepared a report for a committee of experts to be called together later. Subsequently the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation presented a report to the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, which body in 1932 adopted definite resolutions on the revision of school textbooks, the purpose being to indicate broad lines of policy to ensure that school textbooks should fulfil the conditions already laid down by the Assembly.

This report, revised, enlarged and containing the resolutions referred to above, is contained in the volume entitled 'School Text Book Revision,' second edition, published in 1933, and should serve as a useful guide to teachers interested

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The number of replies in 1934 was very large. From a world range of replies selection is difficult. The message from Czechoslovakia, 'we will build with you a better world and everyone of us will help,' will find a response in all our hearts. The last sentence of the message of the Welsh children might well serve as a motto for all our teachers: 'Science has made us neighbours, let goodwill keep us friends.'

Whilst considering the observance of special days, the question of the keeping of Armistice Day arises.

The Association of Education Committees has recommended that November 11, Peace Day, should be observed as Peace Day throughout the schools, and the suggestion appears to have been approved by the majority of local education authorities.

Armistice Day. No less than 138 local authorities in 1934 purchased and distributed to their schools copies of the Armistice Day message written for the Union by the Lord Chancellor. There was a total distribution of 49,000 copies as compared with 40,000 in 1933.

The London authority, in its statement issued to the teachers, suggested that the observance of the day of remembrance should include the recognition for the need of future goodwill between nations.

Empire Day.—On the keeping of Empire Day, each year a letter is sent by the League of Nations Union Education Committee to the local authorities, suggesting that the occasion should be used to show the relation of the Empire to the world as a whole. In 1934 ninety-one local authorities purchased and distributed between them to their teachers 21,000 copies of a special leaflet on this subject, and this year 30,000 leaflets were distributed, 11,500 of them being bought by local authorities for distribution in their areas. The London authority has decided to name the day Commonwealth Day as more in keeping with the present day position and outlook. The dramatic method of approach is one that appeals to children of all ages and numbers of schools employ this method.

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number of episodes in history that threw light on the development of law and order, and the work of the League. The last episode compared the murder of Ferdinand at Sarajevo and Alexander at Marseilles, and I suggest that because the League existed, 1934 was not another 1914.

The Birmingham Junior Council, an association of twenty-one grammar and secondary schools, organised an exhibition to depict the life, scenery, customs, and resources of the countries of the world and their contribution to the sum of human culture. Fourteen schools agreed to take part and each school was responsible for a nation or group of nations. The exhibition, held in the Town Hall, was a great success.

In the infants' department a delightful playlet was arranged. The small players represented the children of the nations of the world making their several contributions of song and dance to the Angel of Peace, the Guardian of the World; and the final act, a combined effort of joyful dance and songs, illustrated the truth that children of different races bear no antagonism to each other.

War pageants.—In striking contrast to these peace pageants in which the children themselves take part are the military spectacular pageants, military tattoos and displays witnessed personally or by the film news reel.

The possible effect of these displays upon the growing generation has been a matter of concern to teachers and others training for world peace.

Experiments on Effect of War Films, etc.

The London education authority has forbidden the use of the school organisation for visits to these displays, and other action has been welcomed by the teachers.

An important investigation, held recently at Erith by Mr. Frederick Evans, M.B.E., M.A., (Chief Education Officer) shows that where war films are witnessed the real opinion of children is not favourable to war, but of 400 children twelve to fifteen years of age taken to an exhibition of war films, only one child said 'yes' to the question, 'Would you like to see another war coming?' This is a remarkable justification for the teaching of world peace.

A similar experiment is now in the process of being carried out. By the permission of the Acton authority and with co-operation of Dr. Ewart Smart, M.C., M.A., a number of

in this aspect. It covers a wide field and gives valuable information.

In this country the choice of books for use in schools rests with the local education authorities, school governing bodies and teachers.

The London authority gives a great deal of freedom to the teachers in all educational institutions, and a committee, on which teachers from elementary and secondary schools are represented, prepares lists of books which may be requisitioned for use in schools.

In this work the teachers, impelled by sense of responsibility towards the child and a love of truth, seek to require accuracy and impartiality in school textbooks. Recently the League of Nations Union has published an up-to-date list of books on international relations for children and teachers recommended by the education committee.

Training Colleges

The question of the teaching of international relations is undertaken in the training colleges and university training departments in various ways, generally in connection with the study of history, geography, economics and other modern studies.

The League of Nations Union education secretary and the travelling secretary for universities and colleges visit these institutions from time to time to discuss with the staffs the problems connected with the subject, and to address the students.

In certain colleges there are weekly talks and discussions on foreign affairs. There are also college branches of the League of Nations Union associated with the British Universities League of Nations Society, which body strives to further the Union work in universities and colleges.

At the present time the Universities of Oxford, London and Wales have made systematic provision for the teaching of international relations as a separate study.

In 1934 this society had 3,058 members in its 24 university branches and 2,611 members enrolled in the branches established in 64 colleges (principally teachers' training colleges).

During the course of the year 215 lectures in the universities and 264 lectures in the training colleges were organised. From August 18th-28th this year this body is organising an international conference for students at Geneva. The conference will fall into two parts. For the first five days

the students will hear lectures given by distinguished lecturers of international standing, and the second five days will be devoted to discussion, the subject this year being 'The Future of Organised Peace.'

The importance of personal contact with people from other lands cannot be stressed too much.

In this subject of teaching for world peace in educational institutions various methods in addition to the purely academic approach of promoting friendship have been adopted.

School Correspondence

The practice of international school correspondence has been carried on between classes or other groups under the supervision of qualified teachers with good results.

School Journeys

In this country the School Journey Association has encouraged the teachers to take groups of children in the school terms for educational holiday purposes to seaside and country resorts. More recently groups have been taken abroad. This Whitsun a party of boys about fourteen years of age, accompanied by their teachers, visited Belgium. The major part of the time was spent in becoming acquainted with places and people from the social aspect, but one visit was to the battle-fields, the war cemeteries, a vivid picture to the boys of one of the terrible results of war. At times the teacher must remind himself that the purpose of the teaching of international co-operation is to ensure that henceforth international disputes shall be settled by pacific means.

This August 840 schoolboys are to be taken on a cruise to Norway and Denmark, under the auspices of the School Journey Association. This is the first attempt of its kind for boys from elementary schools.

Special Observances

The setting aside of one special day for the observance of peace is another helpful factor. Each year the Welsh National Council of the Union arranges for a wireless message from the schools of Wales to be broadcast by the principal broadcast systems of the world on Goodwill Day, the anniversary of the first Hague Conference, May 18th, 1899.

For the first time the Secretary-General of the League of Nations addressed a message to the youth of the world on May 18th. He radiated a world message which began: 'To-day as you know is the day of goodwill.'

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children were taken to the military tattoo at Aldershot and an inquiry is being undertaken as to their mental reactions. The result is being awaited with interest.

In this question of education for world citizenship mention must be made of the junior branches of the League of Nations Union.

There are to date 1,290 school branches and 155 other junior branches.

The members of all these branches are known as League of Nations Pioneers, and there are in addition no less than 35,849 pioneers who have registered individually. Youth groups within the adult branches of the Union make provision for young men and women after school age. The number of youth groups is now 235. The prevailing spirit appears to be a desire to render active service in the groups and increasingly this is being based on serious study.

In 1934 junior summer schools were held at Geneva for boys and girls, attended by pupils from public, secondary and high schools and one of the L.C.C. central schools.

Some of the youth groups take an active part in the work of the International Friendship League, which is concerned with the question primarily from a social standpoint.

This summer there will be holiday centres in a large number of European countries.

Another interesting illustration of this method of approach by travel and conference combined in educational institutions was the formation in 1933 of a committee consisting of the principal and heads of modern languages in L.C.C. evening institutes, for the purpose of inaugurating a scheme which, with the co-operation of the educational authorities of the various capitals of Europe, would enable language students to spend their holidays abroad at a low cost.

In 1933, 380 and 120 students visited Berlin and Paris respectively. In 1934 activities were extended to Vienna and Madrid, 1,000 students altogether taking part. This year, Rome, Neuchatel, Leningrad and Brussels have been included, making eight educational contacts.

In a reunion of those taking part at the County Hall, Westminster, in 1934, when the Chairman of the London County Council (Lord Snell) presided and was supported by the Russian Ambassador, the Austrian Minister and other distinguished guests, the Rt. Hon. A. Henderson said: 'What we need is a great development in moral disarmament, a transformation of the thought, the outlook, and the mind; you go on with your work and I will go on with mine.'

Responsibility of Teachers to help to prepare New World

This last sentence reminds teachers of the grave responsibility that results from the teaching of world citizenship to our pupils.

We are preparing our pupils for a world in which there shall be a code of international law and the settlement of dispute by pacific means.

Unless we are to prove false to our trust, we must do all in our power to ensure that this may be a reality.

How can we assist ?

Through our organisations we must endeavour by resolution and public pronouncement to promote and form an educated public opinion on the question of world peace.

A review of the resolutions of the Conference and Executive of the N.U.T. on the subject of peace and peace teaching since 1923 indicates what the organised teachers in this country are striving to do.

Generally speaking, such resolutions have been forwarded to H.M. Government, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, the representatives of H.M. Government at Geneva and to the Press. It is worthy of note that the Rt. Hon. Arthur Henderson has acknowledged the value of such resolutions he has received at Geneva, and at the Scarborough Conference, addressing a large audience of teachers, he expressed the hope that the Disarmament Conference may still be brought to a successful issue.

At the conference held Easter, 1935 (over 2,000 delegates), a resolution was passed reaffirming the Union's declared policy of adherence to the principles of the League of Nations, and urging H.M. Government to make effort to second international agreement on general disarmament, and the co-operation of America within the League in the interests of World Peace. This was sent to H.M. Government, to Geneva, important people, and given wide publicity.

The N.U.T. has also associated itself with the work of the National Peace Council. It subscribed to the statement presented by that body to the Commission on the Arms Trade Inquiry, and sent representatives to the Peace Congress, held under the auspices of the National Peace Council in London in June of this year, which provided an open forum for discussion of all aspects of the peace question to date.

During the Congress four resolutions were passed, including one which expressed the sincere and passionate hope

that the Italo-Abyssinian dispute might be settled by peaceful means.

To glance back a few years, at the time Mr. Kellogg's proposals were being considered, the Executive of the N.U.T. by resolution welcomed these proposals and later sent to Geneva a resolution supporting the principal of the modification of the League Covenant to harmonise with Mr. Kellogg's Pact, now known as the God of Paris.

The result of the peace ballot in this country shows the way public opinion is tending. At the present time of apprehension, it is incumbent upon the teaching profession to take its share in directing world opinion towards the goal to which our teaching is leading, that is, 'to regard international co-operation as the normal method of conducting world affairs,' and in the words of the Paris Pact to recall that 'war shall no longer be considered an instrument of policy for the settlement of international disputes.' We have a twofold aim to prepare our children for world citizenship and assist in making that world fit to receive her citizens. From such a world war will be outlawed, and we are able to agree with the late Lord Cushenden when he said: 'War is no longer a glorious adventure but a national dishonour.'"

SECOND SESSION : THURSDAY, 15TH AUGUST,

10 A.M.—1 P.M.

Radio as an Instrument of Understanding, Appreciation and Good Will

Thomas W. Gosling (Director, American Junior
Red Cross)

"The machinery of modern civilisation may be used for both destructive and constructive ends. Whether a destructive purpose or a constructive purpose shall govern in any particular instance will depend upon the will of the person or persons using the instrument. It is of great importance, therefore, to give attention to the attitudes and to the ideals of those persons into whose hands instruments of power are placed.

It is obvious to everyone that the radio may be highly effective for both good and bad purposes. This fact emphasises again the common statement that the multiplication of inventions and the creation of new instruments are not necessarily assets to civilisation. Unless the growth of the spiritual qualities of men is at least as rapid as the development of mastery over material things, the results of discovery and of invention will be harmful instead of helpful to the race. All men of goodwill, therefore, will feel an obligation to contribute in every possible way to the development of moral and spiritual qualities as the basis of a finer culture.

When we think of the radio as one of our new power instruments, we are likely to forget that it has no intrinsic merits. Whatever qualities it possesses are derived from the qualities of the users. For the purposes of our present discussion we shall concern ourselves chiefly with the beneficent effects which may be attained when the radio is used by persons who are actuated by a spirit of goodwill.

One of the most dramatic uses of radio is connected with the sea. When a vessel is in distress and it sends its S O S signals through the ether, available ships of all nations hurry to the rescue. No question of nationality, race or creed is raised. The saving of human life is the prime consideration. Those sailors who have suffered from the hazards of navigation, and whose lives have been saved through the intervention of mariners on other ships, are drawn into close and friendly relationships which wipe out all those differences which previously had existed. This maritime tradition that human life is sacred is made more easily effective through the use of the radio. We need more traditions of this kind on land as well as on the sea.

Sometimes the radio brings a message of great suffering from some place far removed from the centres where medical and nursing aid can readily be obtained. The airship which, in response to this radio message, carries relief far off into the mountains or forests or into other inaccessible places, is a messenger of goodwill sped on its way by the radio call and by the response of kindly, friendly and sympathetic hearts.

A great contribution to international understanding, appreciation and friendliness will be made when the masters and the users of the radio in every nation consider it their prime function to make known the best that has been thought or said or felt. When the best is known and when the best prevails, we shall have a different and a better world.

One of the great obstacles to the effective sending of radio messages throughout the world is caused by differences in language. Not much inspiration is derived from listening to a radio address in a language which one does not understand. Some may assert that this situation supports the contention of those who advocate a universal artificial language. Others may think that the solution of the difficulty lies in having everyone learn two languages. Neither one of these solutions is within easy reach. If the newspapers and the magazines of the various countries would translate the international messages of goodwill into the language of the constituency which each paper or magazine serves, part of the difficulty due to differences in languages would be removed.

Fortunately, in music we have a universal language. Consequently, it will be profitable for the advocates of international understanding and of universal peace to explore more fully the possibilities which music has to contribute to these ends.

In spite of the inadequacy of words that are not followed up closely by action, there is still a service which words can perform through the agency of the radio. Messages of sympathy when disaster or sorrow comes to a nation; messages of congratulation upon great occasions or for great achievements; messages conveying appreciation and goodwill may all have a part in contributing to the establishment of a better world order founded upon justice and fair dealing. These messages, of course, must not be mere empty words; they must be genuine expressions of intention to make conduct conform with oral utterance.

In this connection I call your attention to the annual observance of International Goodwill Day on May 18th. There is no known way of measuring the results of the messages which are delivered on this occasion; there is not even a known way of discovering the total numbers of those who hear the messages or who even know anything about them. Nevertheless, on philosophical grounds it seems likely that no such observance as Goodwill Day involves can be without some wholesome effect over rather wide areas. On the last International Goodwill Day the American Junior Red Cross was invited to represent the World Federation of Education Associations in organising and in presenting the messages of the day. On the chance that not all of you heard these messages and in the hope that they may be of some interest to you, I reproduce here several of the addresses

which were given with a genuine feeling of goodwill. The first of these, delivered by the director of the broadcast, was as follows :

'The American Junior Red Cross acknowledges with pleasure the honour of representing the World Federation of Education Associations in conducting the International Goodwill Day broadcast in nineteen hundred thirty-five. Both organisations place their faith in the power of education to accomplish what has not been accomplished by treaties, pacts and covenants.

The deep desire of the peoples of the earth is to live in security, to rear their children in safety, and to enjoy the blessings of peace and prosperity. These worthy goals are attainable through the development of understanding and appreciation and through the exercise of goodwill. These virtues are not the product of law or of decree. They are the results of the slow and unremitting processes of education.

Virtues do not exist in the abstract. They must always be associated with conduct. So it is with goodwill. There is no such thing as abstract goodwill. In order to be real and effective, goodwill must express itself in action, in just and fair dealing with others. Goodwill in action seeks to eliminate from its own conduct the causes of irritation and of conflict ; it seeks to lay firm and deep the foundations of understanding and of friendliness.

We have an invincible desire for permanent peace among the nations. This peace, we know, cannot be attained by decree or convention. It can be made a reality only when nations learn to deal justly and righteously with one another. Therefore, beginning with our home land, we call upon all who are in authority in America to make just and righteous conduct in both national and international affairs the goal of their public endeavour, and we urge all individuals, in private as well as in public life, to cleanse their hearts of jealous and hostile sentiments towards the people of other lands, in order that upon the sure pledge of goodwill our fervent hopes for peace may be fulfilled.

In this spirit the American Junior Red Cross presents to-day a series of messages which are intended to strengthen the bonds of peace throughout the world.'

Admiral Cary T. Grayson, Chairman of the American Red Cross, delivered the following message :

'Once more the observance of International Goodwill Day gives us all an occasion for examining the conditions upon

which goodwill depends. Goodwill is more than a negation ; it is more than a mere profession of abstinence from wrongdoing. It is a positive outpouring of personality in the interest of others. It is like charity which "suffereth long and is kind." And yet, because it is a human quality, it is subject to the imperfections and the shortcomings of men.

Goodwill thrives best in an atmosphere of mutual friendliness. While it demands nothing for itself, it tends to shrivel up wherever continual wrongdoing and injustice are perpetrated by others. The only sure hope for a continuance of goodwill lies in the elimination of selfishness and injustice and of all other causes of human suffering.

It is a continuing wish of the American Red Cross to be the "Good Neighbour." No other attitude is justifiable on the part of intelligent men and nations. And just as in any community a good neighbour keeps his own house in order, refrains from doing injury to others, and freely proffers aid in time of need, so the American Red Cross wishes to be an agency of friendliness to all peoples.

This International Goodwill Day unhappily comes at a time when men and nations are greatly troubled. Years of financial, industrial and agricultural misfortune have worn down the nerves. Patience has been sorely tried ; endurance has been nearly exhausted. Tension and strain have threatened to complete the work of destruction. Under such conditions there is more need than ever for a practical demonstration of goodwill. Now is the time to strengthen the defences of mankind against all perils. In the final test, the only sure defence is moral and spiritual. Goodwill, friendliness, neighbourliness may save us where material defences fail.

The American Red Cross offers its goodwill to all.'

At the annual convention of the American Junior Red Cross in April, preceding International Goodwill Day, the members of the convention prepared a message specifically for the Goodwill Day broadcast. This message was delivered on May 18th by Mr. Harold E. Leventhal, an American Junior from New York City, as follows :

'Friends of many lands, the American Junior Red Cross greets you ! We have had the pleasure of corresponding with you for many years, and now the opportunity has been afforded us for actual communication, and we are grasping it with eager hands.

Because of the oneness of purpose of the Junior Red Cross,



MESSRS. KVALHEIM (NORWAY), DELMAS (FRANCE), AND BLOEMSMIA
(DUTCH INDIES)

time to emphasise the need of goodwill among the peoples of the world.

The progress of the human race from barbarity to civilisation has been slow and painful. In furthering this progress it must be the honest endeavour of all peoples to arrive at a sympathetic understanding of the problems and difficulties of other peoples. Goodwill must be more than a gesture. The temptation to condemn that not readily understood must give way to an honest and sustained effort sympathetically to weigh the viewpoint of other nations. 'The constructive forces of neighbourliness must be real and vital.'

The radio when wisely used is one of the most powerful agencies for creating international understanding, appreciation and goodwill. We have just begun to explore the possibilities. These are limited only by the capacity of the peoples of the world to raise their hearts and minds to the level where distrust, suspicion and enmity cannot exist, and where justice, fair dealing, friendliness and peace can thrive. This is another way of saying what was said at the beginning. Unless the uses of the radio are actuated by right principles, we shall merely have one more medium for communication without any increment of goodwill."

How to Acquaint Youth with the New World

Margaret B. Cross (Director, Junior Branch, British Red Cross Society)

"It is a great privilege and no less a responsibility to represent the League of Red Cross Societies at this meeting and, in the absence of Monsieur Milsom, the Director of the Junior Section, to say something of the work and experience of the Junior Red Cross as contributing to the object which the Herman-Jordan Committee has at heart.

Ten years of close association with the League, and of still closer association with the Junior Branch of the British Red Cross Society, are my credentials. I must admit that when I first saw the subject allotted to me I was somewhat taken aback—to acquaint Youth with the new world appeared to be a very formidable task, and I wondered in what sense one could reasonably speak of a new world at all.

The world and all that therein is seems to be pretty much what it always has been—a place of conflict and of opposing

forces. Human nature seems to be pretty much what it always was ; even those political systems and changes that excite us so much to-day are in the long run very like old friends with new faces—or old enemies—according to the way we look at them.

What then is new ? One, at any rate, of the elements of newness is the possibility of getting a more intimate knowledge and understanding of our fellow-creatures through the increased facilities for communication that modern science provides. The possibility is surely there, but up to the present it is by no means realised, and if we are to get out of the atmosphere of doubt and animosity, we must find a surer foundation on which we may build the superstructure of a world new in outlook and achievement. Knowledge is a barren thing without a vivifying emotion to give it the breath of life. If we set out to acquaint youth in any effective sense we must, I think, first of all use our new opportunities to acquaint youth with a very old thing—our common humanity, and we must use whatever instrument comes to our hand to get it into young people's heads that we are all very much alike.

It is the happy distinction of the Red Cross that it offers us national organisation on the basis of an International Convention, founded on a great humanitarian ideal. Through its Junior Branches it includes the youth of many lands in a common bond of service to others, and makes them aware and conscious of their fellowship in a simple and natural way.

The Red Cross has maintained its integrity under widely different conditions and with an ever extending range of activities, because it has never deviated from its original purpose—the service of suffering humanity—and it is able to include all races, cultures and ages, because every individual, at *every level of consciousness*, can contribute something to its aims as defined by the Covenant of the League of Nations in Article XXV : to work for the promotion of health, the prevention of disease and the relief of suffering at all times.

things and to advance by experience, the only way in which we can advance, along the road to social responsibility and community service.

The records of the Junior Red Cross are full of enterprises for health and service, and the eumulative effect of all this voluntary and spontaneous activity, remarkable in itself, has the further advantage of developing the community sense. When the results of little sales of work, of little entertainments, entrance fee often no more than a few pence, of Red Cross hens kept and sold for charity—and I have even heard of a Red Cross pig—adds up into Fresh Air Homes and Children's Hospitals, it is a great encouragement to the individual to believe in the value of his own efforts. When the aggregate of eggs collected by small groups totals tens of thousands it is equally impressive, and the variety of undertakings by groups—not, be it noted, by individuals—from all over the world, all having the same object to serve others, is as refreshing as it often is touching and amusing. The purchase of schools' washing apparatus, and even of individual towels and cups; the sending of fruit from the fertile lowlands to the barren heights; the sustained efforts of a poor little country school, in which each child brought a piece of wood, a log or a broken branch daily throughout the winter to school, and so provided six families with fuel, are exercises in community service of which the value cannot be doubted. Time does not permit me to quote more examples, nor is this the occasion for a detailed account of the Junior Red Cross plan, which is not to form an outside organisation with rules and regulations of its own, but to offer to the teacher an instrument that can be used in conjunction with the life of the school, which calls into play forces that are everywhere powerful in child nature. It appeals to the imagination, and it invites to action and to doing things that the child feels to be worth doing—things of which he can see the use.

It brings into play his love of associating himself in leagues and loyalties—the team spirit—with rituals and responsibilities of its own; above all, it offers the satisfaction that every child feels in helping someone.

Miss Jean Browne, the very experienced Director of the Canadian Junior Red Cross, wrote recently: 'This appeal (i.e. of the Red Cross) stimulates the altruistic emotions, and at the same time there is opened up a practical channel through which the feelings of compassion can find expression and satisfaction. I am convinced it is through this sound

and practical appeal to the emotions that the Junior Red Cross has become such a power among the children of the world.'

Here, I think, the possibility of effective acquaintance comes into view and, on a sound psychological basis, a new and friendly interest is being built up among the children of many lands, who belong to the Red Cross. The growth of a genuine interest and sense of fellowship is promoted through a simple machinery of exchanges fostered by the League of Red Cross Societies, which provides as it were a clearing-house for Red Cross information, and is used by the national societies to encourage, stimulate and inspire their young members to acts of social service and a spirit of comradeship. The channels of this infiltration of mutual interest and goodwill are the Junior magazines and the inter-school correspondence, which are closely related.

The inter-school correspondence, by means of albums or portfolios made up to illustrate the doings and surroundings of the schools, which are paired through the national Headquarters, is steadily growing and is increasing in vitality. Formal and pedantic projects which evoke little response are now rarely produced, and many of the compilations are delightfully spontaneous in expression, without any undue sacrifice of care in the preparation of the material. The very great variety in the contents that make up the portfolios shows individual interest, very often combined with much taste and not a little humour, besides letters and written matter, descriptions of the country-side, accounts of games, nature notes, pictures, photos, specimens of handicraft and art work, which give a fresh and lively impression of the life and surroundings of the correspondents.

In acknowledging an album from abroad, a teacher wrote recently: 'This exchange of pictures, views and letters is a wonderful help in making real to children the facts which they learn about other people and their homes. It must give them a wider view of life, and help them to grow into useful citizens with a kindly feeling for their fellow-men.' At the end of the letter she sends a message from the head master that he will be taking South America next term, and will we please get him some correspondence from 'there.'

One can well imagine the pleasant little excitement caused by the arrival of a parcel from overseas, and the response evoked when the familiar Red Cross (every album should display the emblem) comes into the classroom, and the

heightening of interest in the surroundings described and pictured by those other Juniors, who send snapshots of themselves and accounts of their doings.

A head mistress gives an interesting example of the way in which understanding may be increased through this sort of correspondence. She relates that her girls were corresponding with the United States and, having given an account of Empire Day in their school, asked their American friends to describe their Independence Day celebrations. 'We would rather not,' said the polite Americans; 'we are afraid we might hurt your feelings.' 'Not at all,' said the English girls. 'We are taught the facts of history and we know all about *that* and it doesn't make any difference to our feelings now. We should like to hear about it.' Then the Americans wrote freely. That, said the head mistress, was an interesting job for the history teacher.

Gifts, such as the exchange of dolls in national costume, and other characteristic objects, often take place; a boomerang from Australia, a bird of the mountain from Peru, pressed flowers, stamps, specimens of textiles, of wood, of seeds, are examples. Recently a little French school sent a baby doll all swaddled, and in a wooden cradle, to an English school, which is now busy preparing their return dolly, dressed in English baby fashion.

These things happen, not only between higher grade schools, but little remote country schools in great numbers are being brought into touch with the world beyond, in the simplest and most natural way.

The interest of the correspondence is not limited to the schools making the exchanges. The lines of communications, so to speak, are extended through the Junior Red Cross magazines, published by a great many Red Cross societies, which quote freely from one another. By an arrangement characteristically 'Red Cross,' the national societies have agreed to help each other in the production of these magazines, and the Junior journals form a pool in which all the editors may fish: the copyright of letterpress and illustrations being reserved only in cases particularly indicated. In these journals, extracts and illustrations from the correspondence are included, and their influence is extended. Where such a quotation is made in a foreign journal, we send a copy to the original correspondent, who is not a little gratified to find that Japan, or France, or Czechoslovakia, or all three, have thought it worth while to print its work.

Many of these journals have a very large circulation, and

copies are exchanged between all national head-quarters. Hence, with the aid of extracts and translations issued periodically to all the editors by the League, there proceeds a lively flow of information, derived from Red Cross sources all round the world. The League has recently published statistics showing how useful a contribution is thus made to the common stock, for besides reporting Junior activities, the life and customs and surroundings of the contributors come into view.

Last year five hundred and ninety-four articles were reproduced in one or other of the national journals; generally speaking, an article or extract that is quoted by one has something in it that excites general interest, and it is quoted by several. An example of public service by a boys' school in the Isle of Man, which set up a notice board, 'UNFIT TO DRINK,' over a deceptive spring, was quoted in a large number of journals. Almost every journal has had a picture of the Red Cross Cow that Hungarian Juniors bought with money earned by the school orchestra, to supply their undernourished schoolfellows with milk; the delightful drawings by Anna Milo Upjohn (of the American Junior Red Cross) of Juniors in national costume have literally a world-wide circulation, and when we remember that there are some fifteen million Juniors in schools throughout the world, we may fairly assume that a good deal of knowledge about their fellows is being absorbed in this friendly and first-hand fashion.

The genuine interest that is built up is reflected in contributions and letters of sympathy, spontaneously sent in times of disaster. When our airship R 101 was wrecked, a letter of condolence arrived from a little Czech school for their English comrades, because they too had suffered an air disaster. When the town of Hakodate was destroyed by fire recently, the Polish Juniors, sending embroideries to the Junior Red Cross exhibition at Tokyo, asked that they might be sold to benefit the sufferers.

It has been truly said that education for peace is more widely approached by the gradual creation of an international outlook in the minds of children than by any formalised plan, and I venture to suggest that the Junior Red Cross opens a way to that wider outlook by setting up these lines of communication, by which boys and girls may come into touch with each other's lives and ways and doings, so that, together with the sense of their own responsibility for the well-being of others, which the Red Cross fosters,

the sense of fellowship may also grow till deep in his consciousness is the knowledge, 'I am one, but I am one of many—and the many is also one.' ”

The Herman-Jordan Plan—Looking Ahead

W. T. Longshore (Vice-President, National Education Association, U.S.A.)

“ The Herman-Jordan Plan called for the appointment of committees for research and investigation, the data secured to become the basis of a plan of education which would be fundamental to the systems of education in all countries. These committees have met at Toronto and Geneva, Denver, Dublin and now Oxford. This year it is proposed to present these plans in considerable detail for such use as educationists in different countries may desire to make of them. They include suggestions as to aims, materials and methods, the preparation of teachers, the building of curricula, the deletion from textbooks of objectionable material, the international relations of youth, the study of international contacts and efforts that have been made to develop international amity, the programmes of instruction for the physical development of youth. These plans also contemplate the uniting of all organisations, whether educational or related, into a sympathetic league for the definite purpose of co-operation to the end that greater results may be obtained.

Recent Progress

In reviewing some of the gains that have recently been registered as a contribution of education to international understanding, only a few of the major fields can be mentioned.

Curriculum revision.—The recent years have witnessed great activity in the revision and improvement of school curriculums in all subjects and at all levels. In this process of improvement and modernisation it was natural that international attitudes and ideals should receive prominent attention. It is not essential to place in the crowded curriculum of the schools new courses of study, but to adjust materials to the studies already installed. Geography, history, civics, literature, the fine arts, commercial studies, and applied science offer abundant opportunities of this

adjustment. Care must be taken to keep a level keel and not be carried away by the emotionalism so common where fundamental changes in attitudes are in the making.

The newer courses of study in history, geography and social science have allotted a generous portion of time and material to the study of world problems. Here, for example, are some of the topics from the new state course of study adopted by South Dakota, U.S.A. :

1. The development of world-wide methods of exchange.
2. A study of group action.
3. How men learned to overcome distance and time.
4. How nations become interdependent through the exchange of commodities.

Kansas has also undertaken a State-wide programme. Through the initiative of the Superintendent of Schools and a group of graduate students, definite work was undertaken and a course of study prepared for the high schools of Wichita. This proved so constructive that the World Federation of Education Associations adjusted it to the Herman-Jordan plan. Under the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, it was placed in all schools as a part of the state course of study.

In Ithaca, New York, the last half of the ninth grade study of social science is entitled : 'Economic Problems : World Relations,' and includes these six main headings :

1. Producing Goods.
2. Exchanging Goods.
3. Convenience of Trade.
4. Management of Income.
5. The Problems of World Peace.
6. Changing Governments and International Relationships since the World War.

Similarly, in Denver, Colorado, the last half of the ninth grade social science course is devoted to a unit entitled 'Governmental Civics and International Relations.' Some schools follow a definite and impartial study of the League of Nations, the World Court, the International Labour Organisation, the Pan-American Union, the various

other types of peace machinery. Thus, young people become informed about these powerful organisations to which our government sends representatives whether we are members or not. It is possible, not only to encourage the scientific study of these organisations, but also to keep cognisant of the events occurring daily in Geneva and elsewhere, in connection with such problems as disarmament, munitions, war debts and foreign trade. Emphasis is put on the Kellogg-Briand Pact; and, most recently, upon the speeches and messages of President Roosevelt. These are but a few of the new materials and courses of study that might be mentioned which give prominence to the international point of view.

New Textbooks.—Along with the development of the course of study there has been a parallel trend in the content of social textbooks. Even the titles of some of these newer books—*International Civics*, *The Community of Nations*, *Changing Civilisation in the Modern World*, *Nations as Neighbours*, *World History*, and the like—indicate the emphasis that is being placed on the international aspects of the social science curriculum.

Special school activities.—In addition to the revision of courses of study to include references to international problems, there have been several attempts to develop a programme of study and activities in international goodwill in the elementary and secondary schools. Special courses in international relations have been offered in colleges and universities for many years, and the practice of offering such courses is now quite general. The idea of giving special emphasis to international problems in high schools is, however, relatively new. One of the best illustrations of this development is the programme of instruction in world friendship which has been built up in the public school system of Los Angeles, California. The book describing this course is now in its third edition. Copies of this book have been ordered by the hundreds for use in school systems in all parts of the country, as well as in the foreign lands of France, Germany, Japan, Sweden, Switzerland and South America. The Los Angeles programme at present includes these phases :

1. Two or three times a year at the request of the superintendent a teacher from each school in the city attends a meeting to hear a talk on world affairs given

by some eminent authority. At these meetings plans for the teaching of international relations are discussed.

2. Special occasions, such as Armistice Day, November 11th; Pan-American Day, April 14th; and International Goodwill Day, May 18th, are celebrated every year by nearly every school in the city. Plays, pageants, songs and addresses play important parts in these celebrations.

3. During recent years an annual oratorical contest on world friendship has been held. Hundreds of students are involved in this enterprise. The winning orations are delivered at one of the sessions of the Los Angeles County Teachers' Institute.

4. Over eighty schools exchange portfolios with schools in other lands—this exchange is carried on either through the Junior Red Cross or through the Ministers of Education in the foreign countries.

5. The League of Nations has been studied as an important international enterprise. Many high schools have presented in dramatic form a reproduction of an actual session of the Council or of the Assembly of the League.

6. World Friendship Clubs have been organized in most of the high schools in the city and a federation of these clubs has been created. These organisations now have a membership of over 3,000 boys and girls. They plan programmes on international subjects.

7. About eighty schools prepared exhibits for the meeting of the National Education Association at Los Angeles in 1931. These exhibits displayed the interdependence of all nations. The World Federation of Education Associations and the National Education Association have jointly prepared suggestions of procedure and materials to be used on such occasions. These are included with the report. This is one of the most interesting and fruitful fields of cultivation. During the assembly period, students may give talks on important world happenings, may debate issues of various sorts, and present short dramas and musical and artistic exercises.

What is being done in Los Angeles is also being done in similar fashion by many other school systems. Boston, Minneapolis, St. Louis and many others could be mentioned.

Recent research in world citizenship.—One of the most encouraging trends in the field of education for world citizenship has been the constantly increasing amount of accurate information on problems related to this field. When the Committee on International Relations was created, practically nothing had been done to study this enterprise objectively. To-day a large body of specific information exists which has a definite relation to our problem. We have important studies on student opinion and public opinion with respect to the teaching of international goodwill and peace. We have discovered many ways and methods for modifying prevailing points of view toward more constructive and wholesome objectives. We have made important progress in our ability to measure the results of our efforts.

Activities of teachers' organisations.—An important item of progress in the last fifteen years has been the degree to which local, state and national teachers' organisations have taken an interest in the relationship which education may have to the solution of international problems. In Texas, Massachusetts, California, Colorado, Minnesota, Missouri, Illinois, and elsewhere the state and local teachers' associations have appointed committees to study this whole matter and see what the schools can do about it. The work of the Colorado Committee is excellent and fairly typical. The Committee aimed to emphasise the great interest and importance of its field. Representatives were appointed in every important school system to co-operate in carrying on activities. Circulars were sent to rural teachers through the county superintendents. These circulars carried an endorsement by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction and contained suggestions for reading and devices for teaching international goodwill. On International Goodwill Day programmes were given in many schools. A list of recommended books and periodicals for the study of international problems was published in the Journal of the State Education Association. The State Federation of Women's Clubs was very helpful in the work of the committee. International clubs in the high schools were established and international correspondence was fostered. In all of its work the main reliance and hope of the Committee has centred around the usual class of instruction and school routine. It has not urged the introduction of new subject matter, but has sought to use the methods and emphasise the attitudes in the teaching of the present programme as laid out in courses of study.

World Federation of Education Associations.—The Committee on International Relations has always had close and friendly contact with the World Federation of Education Associations. The first chairman of our committee, the late Doctor Augustus O. Thomas, in his first report as chairman of our committee, urged the calling of the conference in San Francisco in 1923, which resulted in the establishment of the first world organisation of educational interests. Since that time the World Federation has held a series of important biennial meetings and a number of special conferences. It has organised international committees to study the problems of common interest to the school people for all lands. It has encouraged the international exchange of teachers and students. It recently arranged a most successful international broadcast in recognition of International Goodwill Day. It should in time become a great clearing-house of ideas and ideals for world understanding.

Looking Ahead in Geographic Education

Several major aspects of geographic education need immediate attention.

1. The school pupils in the lower grades (pupils up to 11-13 years old) should learn the major geographic relationships of the individual countries of the world.

2. Pupils in the higher grades (12-18 years old) must master correct concepts of world pattern (world geography). These learnings should be clean cut and deal with conditions and facts as they are to-day. The confused learnings that are resulting from half-baked policies in some recent curricula will achieve the goals outlined by the World Federation of Education Associations, and particularly by the Herman-Jordan Committees.

3. Particularly in the United States, determined efforts should be put forth so that every teacher from the elementary school through the high school and college shall have deeper and broader preparation in the field of modern geographic education.

4. The growing practice of having college geography courses offered in arts colleges, teachers' colleges, and universities is to be commended.

5. The work of assembling a bibliography of carefully selected materials—especially pictures—whereby students will

acquire information and attitudes concerning the present day geography of every region in the world, will fulfil a real need. This bibliography is being prepared by a committee of the W.F.E.A.

The tendency on the part of college professors not prepared in the science of geography to offer courses in geography and even to write books on geography intended for college use should be curbed. No professor unprepared in history would dare offer history courses, nor would one unprepared in science present science courses.

Future Problems

Our review of some of the achievements of the past indicates only too clearly that most of our work still lies ahead of us. Have we developed sufficient world-mindedness to solve the problems that have arisen and will continue to arise in this new interdependent world? Have we reached that stage of enlightened nationalism which enables us to understand that no country can prosper at the expense of others? Have we begun to realise that the nations of the earth must stop fighting each other and unite against the common enemies of mankind—crime, disease and poverty? The gains that we have made need to be consolidated and further advances must be made all along the line. As a conclusion to this report a few of the most current problems will be mentioned.

The education of teachers.—Although progress has been made in some institutions, the education of teachers at present is not adequate in quantity or quality to develop the broad-minded, well-informed recruits which the teaching profession must have if it is to make a significant contribution to the solution of any of the great social and economic problems which face us. Many of our textbooks on educational philosophy and educational sociology give inadequate attention to the implications of world interdependence for education. Traditional content and methods can no longer serve adequately. There is need for a broadening and enriching of the programme of teacher education so that there may be added to mere professional technique those social attitudes and ideals which are so much more important than any teaching method can possibly be.

Interest on the part of State and local education association.—Our State and local education associations have not yet given adequate attention to this important problem.

Every one of these associations should have a committee

on international relations which would consider ways and means for awakening the teaching profession to its responsibility in this field. Such a committee could stimulate the holding of round table conferences in each school system in the world to consider ways and means for teaching international understanding. In all of this work the Committee on International Relations of the World should serve as a centre of information and as a clearing-house for facts and procedure.

Interchange of students and teachers.—The interchange of students and teachers with other countries should become much more common than it is at present.

A philosophy of education in terms of citizenship.—Into the working philosophy of every teacher we must incorporate the concept of world citizenship as an educational goal—not as a separate and unrelated objective, but as an integral part of the whole educational programme.

It is evident that our young people need instruction in new fields. To live in this age of rapid steamships, navigation of the air, hourly news service, and radio, they need a new education which will enable them to react in a wholesome way to world news. Newspapers to-day are filled with news from the four corners of the earth and our students must interpret the happenings in London, Paris, Geneva, Tokyo, and other distant parts of the earth as readily and as accurately as the news from Washington and New York. They need to know something of the elements of international law, treaty making, comparative government, international trade, international banking, international exchange, and the exchange of culture. Persons who have this new education will make better bankers, better importers and exporters, better lawyers, better statesmen, and better citizens. The schools must lead the procession. They must sense the future and the needs of the people in an advanced society.

Continued investigations.—In education for world citizenship we shall become more and more successful as we come to know more and more definitely about the psychology involved, the social background against which we must work, the learnings that we have to use, and the degree of success achieved. It is indeed true in this field as in other fields that research and facts can never be a substitute for enthusiasm and ideals. Nevertheless, we can all work better in the

light than in the dark, and there is great need for further research to throw light on the difficult and complex problems involved in helping boys and girls to become men and women fit to survive in a complex and interdependent culture."

Discussion and Resolutions

A warning that there was very little peace-teaching in the world was given by Dr. Kuhlmann (Secretary, Education Committee, League of Nations at Geneva) during the subsequent discussion.

"It ought," he added, "to be a matter of grave concern that out of all the fifty-five nations in the world to-day we have not heard anything at this conference about peace-education except in Great Britain, America, France and a few other countries.

We shall live in a fool's paradise if we leave this great world conference with the impression that education for world understanding and peace is to-day making headway in the world at large.

It is necessary for this note of warning to be sounded at this great gathering and that it should be realised that only a few countries are making progress in peace education.

I am sorry to say that there has not been progress, but regress, in some countries, and that peace-education has been entirely suppressed in some countries.

We have to make youth aware of the terrific dangers which lie ahead, for distrust and suspicion are even bigger than was the case in 1914.

As H. G. Wells has put it, in the race between human folly and mankind we are not quite sure whether peace and common-sense is going to be victorious.

If we don't present the whole cause of peace and the problems connected with it to the younger generation with realism as well as idealism we may be heading for a more terrific struggle than that of 1914."

The following motions put forward by Miss W. Organ (Executive, N.U.T.), Dr. Holmes (U.S.A.), and Dr. H. Adams (Executive, N.U.T.), respectively were adopted unanimously :

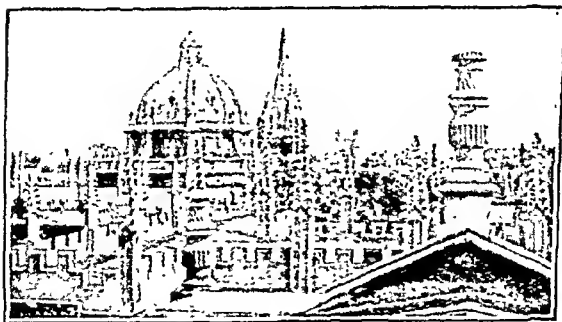
"This delegate assembly of the World Federation of Education Associations, comprising 2,000 delegates from 50 nations, viewing with serious apprehension the growth of a type of nationalism hostile to the spirit

of international co-operation, reaffirms its policy that the teaching of world interdependence and the necessity of peaceful co-operation should be taught in the schools of all nations.

It also urges the Governments of those nations where this teaching does not exist to introduce such teaching in accordance with the resolution passed by the Assembly of the League in 1923, and expresses its sincere appreciation of the efforts of those nations where such instruction is already being given."

"That the W.F.E.A. re-emphasises the need of a greater and more intelligent use of radio and the motion-picture for the promotion of world understanding, goodwill and peace, and that it urges its constituent and co-operating members to seek to secure a wider observance of Goodwill Day in the schools and other educational institutions throughout the world."

"That this delegate assembly of the W.F.E.A., sincerely desiring that the peace of the world may be maintained, and recalling the fact that by the Kellogg-Pact upwards of 60 nations have pledged themselves to settle disputes without resort to war, trusts that the efforts of the League of Nations to compose the differences between Italy and Abyssinia will be successful, and that peace will be maintained."



[Photo: Alden (Oxford)]

VIEW FROM THE SHELDONIAN, LOOKING SOUTH

BIENNIAL MEETING OF THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF HOME AND SCHOOL SECTION

President : MISS ISHBEL MACDONALD (Great Britain).

Secretary : MISS M. A. PAYNE (Great Britain).

Conference Secretary : MISS E. BRENDA VOYSEY (Great Britain).

Place of Meeting : The Carfax Assembly Rooms.

WEDNESDAY, 14TH AUGUST, 10.0 A.M.—12.45 P.M.

AND

THURSDAY, 15TH AUGUST, 10 A.M.—12.45 P.M.

The Development of the Home and School Movement during the past Two Years

The International Federation received a number of Reports, summarised below, from its Committees and correspondents in various parts of the world.

In their Report to the Biennial Conference the Board of Managers of the International Federation pointed out that the idea upon which the Home and School Movement is based has lost none of its vitality, as is evidenced by the very remarkable progress made in individual countries during the period, particularly in Australia, Canada, Finland, Great Britain, New Zealand and the United States of America. It is clear that there is a growing need in the world for service such as is rendered by the Federation, but if the movement is to be really effective, attention must be concentrated upon that which is unique and essential in its character, namely, the encouragement of co-operation between home and school, and of child study on the part of parents, teachers, health and social workers everywhere.

Rural Home and School Relationships

Miss Grace E. Frysinger (U.S.A.) submitted a survey of Rural Home and School conditions in many countries of the world.

Reports received from these countries clearly indicate that rural people have not allowed the problems of this difficult period to demoralise them, to make them apathetic, nor to lessen their zeal and service on behalf of improved rural living. On the contrary, effective leadership has been stimulated and outstanding results have been achieved in sustaining and improving individual and group living standards, in keeping up the morals of rural people, and in stimulating increased effectiveness of the farming enterprise, comfort and attractiveness of the home, and social satisfaction of family and community life. Efforts also have been successful in preventing closing of rural schools and undue curtailment in schools of services and activities which are designed to develop integrated personalities, a broad, social viewpoint, and rural leadership in all fields.

Belgium

Mr. Paul de Vuyst reports that much of the effort of his Committee during the past biennium has been used in promoting rural home and school educational phases of the International Exposition held in Brussels in July, 1935.

Family education continues to receive outstanding emphasis as stimulated by the "League for Family Education," and one of the exhibits at the current Exposition is a Demonstration Farm House which includes the complete demonstration of farm life organised on a modern technical basis.

Canada

Miss Dora Baker reports that Rural Home and School Associations have done especially fine work in creating community spirit and understanding. There are many stories of the gratitude of lonely women, new to country life, who have found companionship and friends through informal home and school meetings. There are also stories of community relationships made harmonious because of a common interest in the children of the school, and there are countless children grateful because of warm lunches, necessary clothing and opportunities for enriched school programmes established and sustained by home and school efforts.

The Canadian report ends with the following paragraph :

“ If we can support our educational administration by an enlightened public opinion, infuse the whole educational system operating on the child—home, school, community, and officials—with a spirit of unity and understanding, remembering that we are dealing with external matters of mind and spirit, we shall have fully justified our existence as a national educational body.”

China

Mr. C. W. Chang states that, wherever possible, the school is used as a centre of social service, with both teachers and students participating. The Ministry of Education has instructed all schools to make their facilities available to the public for class-rooms, libraries, playgrounds, etc. In Shantung Province there are two counties where rural schools are being used as the centre of organisation for child and adult education and for local administration.

Recently the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of the Interior jointly recommended to the National Government a programme of Child Welfare on a nation-wide basis for a year from 1st August, 1935, to be known as “ children’s year.” The recommendation was accepted, and announced by the National Government.

Mexico

Professor Rafael Ramirez reports sustained progress in creating more efficient and satisfying rural life in Mexico, and with especial reference to the improvement of life for the native Indians, men, women, boys and girls through the development of ten “ Centres of Indigenous Education.”

An outstanding feature of the Mexican endeavour is the partnership established between these Indians of backward economic and cultural levels, and their federal educational system, which in creating these centres has developed in the Indians a sense of educational co-partnership and of economic and spiritual release from the bondage imposed by the white man’s civilisation.

In this endeavour the Government pays the teacher. All else is done by the Indians.

Sweden

Mr. Sigurd Svensson reports that rural schools have not undergone any change during this biennium, but the number of pupils has increased very much. A Report on

the Farm Youth Organization states that not less than fifty new organisations were established during the year 1934, and the number now exceeds 500. There was great activity in the organisations. Interest steadily growing in religion, politics and temperance.

United States of America

Mr. William McKinley Robinson reports that during this biennium much time and effort has been given to the promotion of health, recreation, music, libraries and educational finance. To their credit are many actual achievements in these fields. But of greater importance than any achievements which might be cited, is the ever-growing intelligent interest in and appreciation of the welfare of childhood on the part of a great group of people scattered throughout all the communities of a great nation.

Parent-Teacher Associations continue to grow apace, and the following were stressed by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in its rural work :

"Even more than city people do rural people, with their fewer social contacts, need the vision and inspiration which comes from the association with others in a common cause. Often, too, they need the prestige and weight of numbers of the larger organisation back of their projects. There is an evident correlation between the vitality of a rural parent-teacher association and its membership and active participation in community and county councils, state and national congresses. Through efforts in the promotion of joint meetings and larger group affiliations, perhaps the greatest good is to be achieved at the present stage of the development of rural work. Nevertheless, it is important that we should not lose sight of rural interests as such. It is very easy to overlook the problem of any minority group unless they, while a part of the larger group, maintain a consciousness of their own group identity and interests."

The most recently available data of achievements of major interest to the International Federation of Home and School include the following : (1) Urging sustained formal education among rural youth, (2) aiding rural people to maintain adequate educational services, (3) stimulating introduction of hot school lunches on a nutritional basis, providing educational leadership in the field of parent education and family

relationships, (4) training in matters of physical and mental health, (5) development and training of rural leadership, (6) training for adults, including parent education and community welfare such as health, library facilities, recreation and landscape gardening, and religious services.

Home Economics

Miss Helen W. Atwater summarised general development in various countries as follows :—

Austria

Reports speak of the excellent work of the child welfare clinics, where the advice given, along the lines of individual psychology, is of the utmost value in developing well-adjusted personalities and in furthering good family relationships.

It is known from other sources that interesting and significant work is also being done in Austria under other auspices. One somewhat unusual programme, for example, goes under the name of *LEBENSWIRTSCHAFT*: this promotes instruction in the various aspects of home and family life, tries to reach girls and women in all parts of the country, including remote mountain villages, and promotes special teacher training schools and refresher classes.

Bulgaria

Dr. Katzaroff reports that there is a home-making programme in the *REALSCHULEN* recently established in that country; that the universities and professional training schools offer nothing of this sort; that from November to March classes are conducted in the daily continuation schools; that visiting teachers, social workers, and agricultural agents are giving guidance in home-making through the *VOLKSCHULEN*; and that some home-making activities are found in kindergartens and summer playgrounds. Travelling exhibits of good home-making practices are maintained by certain voluntary agencies. Instruction in home-making is included in the programmes of the Village Development Society, the Union of Women, and the Near East Foundation, also in those of village relief organisations and village co-operatives.

Canada

Mrs. McLaughlin reports that parent study groups connected with the schools have been organised in the Federated

Provinces of Canada ; that several universities offer special courses in home-making ; and that trained teachers of home-making co-operate with home and school organisations in programmes that include projects in such subjects as gardening, sewing, home beautification, and helping in the home. Such work is also offered by the Women's Institutes, various associations of home-makers ; and rural organisations. Many voluntary workers give help through lectures and pictures.

Colombia

Dr. Caballero reports home economic classes intended to develop not only household skills but also other abilities needed in the administration of a home. Part of the work is planned to prepare for wage-earning occupations, and this is most developed in the secondary schools, where it deals principally with food preparation, garment construction, and home decoration.

Scotland

Dr. Boyd says that in the schools of his country there is slow but difficult progress. Here and there parent-teacher associations are springing up ; the Secretary of the Scottish Education Department is urging the need of these, and this is likely to have weight with teachers who, as a body, have been inclined to dread the criticisms of such groups. The best of these associations emphasise " the home-making side of the business." In universities and professional training schools very little is done except in his own department at Glasgow University and at the Dundee Training College. Glasgow University promotes the Child Guidance and Parent-Teacher Association, which arranges special lecture courses and inquiry groups in such subjects as " Education as Guidance," " New Methods in Practice," " Vocational Guidance," " Mothercraft," " Obstacles to Freedom in the Schools," " Mental Hygiene." For the next year the Association is forming a training class for members who will thereafter lecture to other groups concerned with the upbringing of children. The health departments and the welfare organisations in large cities do some informal work along the lines of education for home-making.

Switzerland

Home economics (*économie ménagère*) is well developed in all cantons ; where it is not required in the regular schools

short, sometimes itinerant, courses are organised, often with financial aid from the National Pro Juventute collections. Laws are pending in several cantons to make such work compulsory for girls. In many localities the continuation schools for home-making have been hampered by the economic depression but are expected to revive as conditions improve; they prepare young girls for housekeeping and also for child training and the social aspects of home life. The Swiss Universities offer no courses intended to introduce women to their special duties as home-makers, but there are three *Ecoles Sociales pour Femmes*, each of which has a division dealing with the problems of woman's life in the home from the social, economic, philosophic, and moral points of view, and including also practical skills. Similar subjects are covered in the training schools for home economics, teachers, for nurses, and for deaconesses, and also by various private institutions.

There is now a tendency in Switzerland to raise the school entrance and leaving ages from six to seven and fifteen to sixteen years respectively; and since this will leave the children in their homes for a longer time, it is more important than ever to give mothers some idea of pre-school education. It would be most desirable if special centres for this purpose could be opened, and the hope is that Pro Juventute funds can be appropriated for this maternal education as they were for general home-making education.

United States of America

Interest in home-making education continues to grow along the lines noted in 1933. A few years ago when school budgets had to be reduced, some communities dropped home economics from the public school curriculum, but this was soon recognised as false economy, and the practical value of the work has become more and more apparent as the relief programme has been put into effect. Home economists have been employed by the relief administrations in practically all of the States, both to aid in planning the distribution of food and other household commodities and to help recipients to make the best use of the relief granted and to maintain family morals. Similarly, the work of home economics classes in many schools has been adapted to the special economic conditions of their communities, with the result that it has been of unusual benefit to the home practices of the pupils' families. The national emergency education programme introduced to provide work

for unemployed teachers, and to give unemployed men and women a useful way of spending part of their leisure has included general home-making courses and special work in parent-education. Emergency nursery schools have also been established.

The interest in family relationships as a subject for high school and university study has grown rapidly, and the much needed teaching material for this is beginning to be available. For example, the American Home Economics Association has prepared a series of manuals whose approach is through the actual problems and experiences of young people. Boys as well as girls show great interest in such courses. Another new tendency is the introduction into education for home-making of the economics of the consumer and the attempt to raise standards of living by a better knowledge of the rôle of the consumer as a partner in the national economy, including his need for more accurate information about the goods he buys—information such as could be obtained by the use of recognised grades and standards for different household commodities, information labels, and similar devices. Growing public interest in a national housing programme brings the opportunity to emphasise the need for definitely adapting the house to its obvious but often disregarded function as the setting for satisfactory family life and personal development.

Co-operation in the Interests of Health

Dr. Thomas D. Wood (U.S.A.) states in his report that there are evidences, from many directions, of growing appreciation of the importance of co-operative efforts of parents and teachers to promote the conservation and improvement of health of children of school age.

In the United States a wide range of developments in the programme of National Recovery illustrates the increasing attention which is being given to the health of children and youth. In the near future a report on "Home and School Co-operation for the Health of School Children" will be issued by the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Appreciation of the importance of health of school

children, as a subject of systematic study by parent-teacher groups is steadily gaining ground. Some studies are now being made preliminary to preparation of special handbooks for parents dealing in a comprehensive manner with the more efficient promotion of all phases of health of children of school age.

The Home and School Movement—National Reports

Dr. Paul de Vuyst (Ligue de l'éducation Familiale, Belgium) said that although the Movement towards parent education is about fifty years old, it is only comparatively recently that some development can be seen along the lines of co-operation between home and school. Parents and teachers must work together to avoid the many mistakes which have been committed in home and school. The happiness and improvement of the race, and the attainment of true civilisation, come through the development of the moral forces of the individual far more than through mere knowledge.

Dr. George W. Kirby (President of the Canadian National Federation of the Home and School) reported that the past year has seen the greatest activity and interest since the work was organised, nationally, eight years ago. There is a very manifest closer relationship with the Educational Departments of the Provinces and of the Provincial and National Teachers' Organisations.

Some of the special features being stressed by the Home and School Parent and Teacher work in the various Provinces are :

Founders Day, Group Study ; Instruction and information to High School students regarding social relationships and personal hygiene ; Short courses for leaders in Home and School work ; Consideration of programmes for children for Saturday morning movies ; Co-operation of educational authorities on vocational guidance ; Home science ; Carefully prepared programmes, emphasising parent education and child study ; Adult education as part of the Home and School movement ; Larger units of administration for rural schools ; School and Social Studies, Examination Modifications ; Humanising the Curriculum ; Child Welfare and

Mental Hygiene; Better Movies and strong opposition to block-booking and blind selling of motion pictures; Character Education; The League of Nations and peace and goodwill and the cultivation of the International mind among our young people, as well as an intelligent and loyal national citizenship.

Miss E. Brenda Voysey (Great Britain) reported for England and Wales, and Mr. W. J. S. Little for Scotland. There has been a rapid and spontaneous development of the Movement in Great Britain during the past two years. Parent-Teacher Groups attached to individual schools springing into being in all parts of the country. The initiative for the formation of these groups came almost invariably from the teachers. The parents have responded well to the right kind of leadership from the schools, and some very satisfactory results have been achieved.

In carrying out its functions as a meeting-ground for the interchange of experience and ideas the Home and School Council of Great Britain during the past two years has developed considerably the services which it offers to affiliated Parent-Teacher Groups. Local and national conferences have been held and literature published, including the Council's monthly magazine, *Parents and Teachers*, which contains accounts of Parent-Teacher activities in different parts of the country.

A series of child-study outlines, with covering articles, has been published in *Parents and Teachers* during the past year, and is being reprinted in the form of a booklet for use in the Parent-Teacher Groups.

The constitution of the National Council has been revised to admit of the inclusion of two local Councils, one for Birmingham and district, and the other for Liverpool and district. It is anticipated that many more local Councils will be formed, and that the National Council will eventually become a Federation of Local Councils.

In Scotland a circular letter has been issued by the Department of Education to all schools, urging their consideration of how to obtain closer co-operation between Home and School.

Miss Millicent Kennedy (New Zealand) reporting on behalf of Miss Chaplin, stated that the Home and Schools Association in New Zealand is gathering strength, more particularly in connection with the secondary schools. In the elementary (primary) schools, there is also a School

Committees' Association, which consists of school committees, one for each primary school, regardless of the size of the school. These have been in existence practically ever since compulsory education was introduced in 1876. There was already in existence a strong bond between the parents and teachers in the primary schools. In the secondary (State) schools—each school is governed by a Board of Governors, and these Boards are elected on a different system from the School Committees' Associations, and, furthermore, it is here that the parents have found that this Association for Home and School is most useful.

Mrs. B. F. Langworthy (President of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, U.S.A.) reported that the biennium since the last International Federation Convention has seen a sharp rise in membership due largely, it is believed, to the recognition of the plight of the schools, and the necessity for creating public opinion in favour of their adequate support.

The schools depend for support on local taxes, each district deciding upon its own necessities or ability to pay. These funds are supplemented by a general fund appropriated by the State Legislature and distributed according to whatever system is adopted by the State.

There is now an effort to obtain Federal Aid for the emergency need, while some of the Educational Groups feel that permanent Federal Funds should be established for the care of education in order to equalise opportunities for all children. This necessity has aroused the Parent-Teacher Associations to bring pressure on State Legislature in favour of the support of education, and probably accounts for much of the new growth. There has been during the past year a gain approximately of 300,000 new members, so that there is now a total membership of nearly two million.

In response to a great need of information in regard to the School System in Study Groups, last year a small book called "Our Public Schools" was published. This carries the history, method of support, necessity of supporting changes in the modern curriculum and other topics which are needed to make an informal membership. By means of this book an independent interest is being created among our members.

The theme of the 1934 National Convention was "The Future of The Forgotten Child," and dealt with his future possibilities, mentally, physically and spiritually, especially

in reference to the effect that the financial depression might have upon him. The theme was taken up by the Parent-Teacher Association, and Study Clubs throughout the States, and formed the basis of most of their programmes and study for the year.

The theme of the 1935 Convention was "The Home, the Index of National Life." This was selected because the present President has made the home the emphasis of her administration on the ground that while we have been stressing the necessity of school support, we have somewhat lessened our stress on better homes.

Through the depression many adverse influences have been brought to bear on the home—inadequate housing, lack of recreation, nutrition and character building in the home. This theme will be carried with more or less regularity by the various State Branches of the Congress, and we hope to see improvements brought about by its study.

The National Committees on Home Making, on Recreation, Library Service, and others pertaining particularly to home life, have been unusually active in bringing the light of all their suggestions to bear on the home.

The Committee on Motion Pictures has striven constantly to establish the National Congress plan for concentrating on educational films. This seemed necessary because no method that has ever been tried, or that any other organisations have tried, of co-operating with motion picture producers in order to secure films suitable for children, has ever succeeded. Not all the State branches have accepted this plan entirely, but most of them have and an indication of its, at least, partial success lies in the fact that motion picture producers have made every personal effort to get National Congress to abandon the plan. We know that the educational and recreational films are suitable for children, and we have found few of the so-called romantic or commercial films that are suitable.

The Federal Office of Education has been making a two-year study of High School Parent-Teacher Associations. This study has been finished and is being published at the present time, copies being obtainable from the Offices of Education at Washington.

The Summer Round-up project, which is a plan for bringing first year pupils into school as free from remedial defects as possible, has been proceeding with gathering strength. The co-operation of the American Medical Association has made this a scientific as well as social project that is

of very great value to the school children of the country as well as to the parents.

Last year a weekly radio programme was conducted with the co-operation of the University of Chicago and the National Broadcasting Company. Guest speakers from other universities have generously given of their time, as have the Faculty of the University of Chicago, and the general effect of this weekly programme has been to knit more closely our organisation.

Many States also carry a radio programme on Education and the Home, but this is national in scope, and covers the whole country.

The programme of Parent Education enters its fifth year with the financial help of the National Council of Parent Education. This enrolled approximately 128,000 parents in Study Groups covering a range of mental and physical health that extends from the pre-school to college years. This is work that should grow continuously and effectively. If a proper emphasis is put on adult education, and its applicability to child development, it is found that the study groups with continuous and well-planned programmes are assuming more and more importance, and are taking the place in many instances of the formal lecture programmes which were placed ordinarily a month apart, and thereby lost continuity.

We are definitely emerging from the material period of the organisation where the great emphasis is laid on providing things for the schools, into the mental and spiritual aspect of the home and school movement. This will be of lasting benefit to the nation, and provide a more thoroughly educational condition.

Mrs. Langworthy also recorded the progress of the Coloured Parents and Teachers.

This organisation of negroes follows the same type of work with the same policies and objects as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. It supplies the need for an organisation in the Southern States where by law there is a segregation between whites and negroes in the schools. In the Northern States where there is no such segregation, negroes also belong to the white Parent-Teacher Associations.

The National Congress of Coloured Parents and Teachers carries more of a social service programme than does the National Congress, due to a somewhat stringent necessity throughout their membership. Their effort for the welfare of their children is of a high and noble order.

The Significance of Co-operation between Home and School

Miss Marie Butts (International Bureau of Education, Geneva) said: "I have been asked first to give you a bird's-eye view of the development of the Home and School Movement in the different countries, and secondly to point out 'the general educational and social effects of this drawing together of home and school.'"

In the little volume of Reports written for the Conference, there is an excellent Report by Mr. Hunziker, to this Conference ('5e Congrès International d'Éducation familiale') who was until recently President—and is still Honorary President—of the Federation of Secondary School Parent Associations in France, and also a member of the governing council of the School for Parents in Paris, founded by Madame Verine.

There are several other valuable Reports in the volume—for instance, Father Schmiedeler's Report (in English) on 'The School and Parent Education' in the United States (pp. 161 to 180) and Dr. Oser's (of Budapest) on 'The Teaching of Family Education accompanied by Practical Exercises' (pp. 181 to 189). I will not duplicate the information collected by Mr. Hunziker who sent out, to all countries, over 300 questionnaires, though I shall quote some of his opinions presently. I will rather refer to one or two countries about which I happen to have special information not included in the Brussels Reports.

In PARAGUAY the People's Commissions on Education (Commissions d'Éducation populaire) have as one of their chief aims to bring the School and the Home together, and to establish a close co-operation between them.

In PANAMA, the law provides for the creation of Parents Committees in almost every kind of school in the Republic, with the definite purpose of developing co-operation between the school and the home, by enabling the parents to realise what is being done in the school and to make their contribution to its improvement.

The tendency to favour ever closer co-operation between parents and teachers seems to be quite general in Latin America.

In ITALY, many elementary schools, those of Pisa, for example, have formed 'Comitati di Azione.' The movement was started by one school at Pisa who sent out an appeal for the constitution of a committee that should give financial

help for definite purposes. The reply was enthusiastic, and the first money subscribed served to give the school a playing-field. 'That first act of the Committee,' says the article I am quoting, 'is a tangible proof that the humble working population was conscious of its duty to work with the Comune for the improvement of its public education.' All the other schools of Pisa followed this example, and pianos, harmoniums, lanterns for projections, reproductions of works of art, libraries, etc., were given by the 'Comitati di Azione.' The author of the article points out that one of the most important results is the co-operation thus established between the home and the school.

At the New Education Conference of Nice, in 1932, a very interesting report from JAPAN was read by Mr. Kikujō Sakakibara, of Okazaki, on Parent-Teacher Associations in Japan. The author points out the extreme importance of such organisations for the whole education of the child, and states that almost all the primary schools of Japan had one.

Mr. Hunziker points out in his report the very fine work accomplished by the co-operation of home and school in POLAND, GREAT BRITAIN, SWITZERLAND and the UNITED STATES.

Judging by the information contained in Educational Reviews, and by the number of articles to be found in the general Press—both in newspapers and in magazines—on the subject of the respective duties of the Home and the School in the education of the young, and on the relations between parents and teachers, there is now, all over the world, a very general realization of the necessity for co-operation.

Among the Resolutions voted by the Representatives of forty-two Governments at the fourth Conference on Public Education, held at Geneva last month, were the following:—

'The Conference (1) believes that the efficacy of these organisms depends largely on the measure in which they bring together representatives of the school administration, of public opinion, and of parents, as well as representatives of the teaching profession and specialists in the field of education; (2) draws the attention of school authorities to the great services to education, which parents' associations, officially recognized or otherwise, can render by their participation in these councils (i.e. in local school councils or commissions).'

In nursery schools and kindergartens, all the world over, co-operation between the mothers and the teachers of young children seems to be satisfactory. In a good many public elementary schools and in progressive private schools, it is fairly satisfactory, especially if there are a few enthusiastic teachers and enthusiastic parents to help it on. Nevertheless there is still a great deal of indifference to the idea, and sometimes even hostility because of a lack of clear understanding of what the co-operation can and should be.

In his report Mr. Hunziker says: 'For such initiatives to succeed it is indispensable that they should be carried out in an atmosphere of mutual confidence.' He is right; without that, attempted co-operation becomes an unendurable burden and does far more harm than good.

General Educational and Social Effects

1. In my opinion, the associations should always be of Home and School, according to the formula of the International Federation of Home and School; of Parents and Teachers, according to the formula of the National Council of the Parents and Teachers of America, and according to that of the excellent magazine of the Home and School Council of Great Britain, where so many first-rate examples of Parent-Teacher Associations in British schools are given. If there are associations of parents only, which may be necessary, there should be provision made for constant consultation with the teachers; associations of parents only as they exist in some countries, and where teachers are only admitted if they are themselves parents of pupils in the school, seem to me to invite trouble and misunderstanding, as they almost fatally create two camps.

Mme. Cazamian seems to me to have expressed very well (in an article in *Pour l'Ére Nouvelle*, July, 1932) the drawbacks of separate Parent Associations. She says: 'The great majority of parents, even those belonging to a Parent Association, remain passive and indifferent. . . . The children, who have got into the habit of living on two separate planes, one at school and one at home, and have succeeded in maintaining a certain balance between the two, are apt to dread any contact between those two worlds, because they think that such a contact would be in the nature of a collision that might turn out to their disadvantage. And the teachers, over-worked, harassed by over-crowded classes . . . and tyrannical curricula, would not be willing

to take up new duties, probably involving difficulties. Nevertheless, it is in their hands that the solution lies. They are more competent in matters of training and teaching than the majority of parents; at any rate the initiative must necessarily be theirs. It is they who can inform the fathers and mothers of their pupils, explain the aims and the methods of the school, and who can ask for their suggestions as I have seen elsewhere. The Parent Associations might be very useful to them, on condition that they should first be won over to the principle of direct, trustful and cordial co-operation. . . . This, however, implies that the teachers should be in some measure converted to the ideas of "new education." "

The last point is brought out by a Belgian teacher, Mr. Dubois, in a recent article in *Vers l'Ecole Active*: 'Teachers,' he says, 'accuse parents of not seconding their efforts. Mr. de Paeuw, General Director of Education in Normal Schools, has just reminded Belgian School Inspectors of the Minister of Education's Circular on the co-operation of Parents and Teachers. He asks what is the present position in this field of such great importance. . . . What will the inspectors reply if they are honest?—That wherever the atmosphere of the classroom has been changed, wherever the school has been made attractive to the children, the teachers, the parents, the latter have come to the school in crowds. They have taken an interest in the school work, the drawings, the pets, the plants, the manual work . . . the road to the school has become familiar to them. Elsewhere they have preferred to keep aloof. They had enough long ago of the pedantic and lecturing kind of academic lessons.'

2. Parents and Teachers can only co-operate happily in a happy school, where there is a constant background of real life, where trustful happy children come home full of happy tales of their doings and long for their parent to share their joyful adventures in learning.

3. Small Associations are more successful than large ones. Either the large ones should be broken up into sections: school units, and the school unit into class units. Or class units should combine into school units, and the school units federate into local units for action upon local authorities, and then into a State Federation for joint action in great issues. These National Federations should, of course, affiliate to the International Federation of Home

and School. And our Federation ought rapidly to become powerful enough to have real International influence, for instance against war and in favour of Education, in all the schools of the world for the better mutual understanding of the Nations.

4. I believe that the School Doctor, School Welfare Worker, School Nurse (*infirmière scolaire*), School Psychologist, Visiting Teacher, Vocational Counsellor, should belong to the Parent-Teacher Association, or at any rate that their advice always be sought. Unfortunately, in many countries, there are very few School Psychologists, and most unfortunately almost everywhere there is still far too little sound knowledge of child and adolescent psychology both among teachers and parents.

5. The co-operation of the pupils should always be enlisted. A Parent-Teacher Association should do everything possible to foster the trust and confidence of the young people in their teachers and parents, and of the teachers and parents in the young people. Mme. Montessori's greatest discovery, long ago, was that even quite small children are much more reasonable than grown-up people believe. Children, whose co-operation has always been counted upon as a matter of course, both at home and at school, do not grow up into those unfortunate young people who plunge headlong into every foolish experience that comes their way. Mutual confidence is indispensable if relations between the parties are to be frank, honourable, and helpful to all three parties concerned.

6. There should be a strong sense, in both parents and teachers, that the pupils are not the property either of the parents or of the school, but that the parents and the school both exist to help the young—who are free and independent agents—to develop the best qualities in them, and to gain self-mastery. Nothing makes so much as this for healthy relations between teachers and parents, who otherwise are apt to be jealous of one another. Of course a saving sense of humour, or of proportion, is as indispensable here as elsewhere. I heard it recommended to teachers, in French, the other day, at another Educational Conference, held at Brussels simultaneously with the one on Home Education, as a 'grain of irony in our thoughts of ourselves.'

7. It is not wise to bring patterns of parent-teacher associations ready-made from another country, or another environment in the same country, and apply them without

change. Such associations, like any other, must grow up naturally. Historical and cultural backgrounds differ. It seems, for instance, that parents all over America are quite willing to be advised and educated. This is, of course, as it should be—we ought all to be eager to learn—but it is far from being always the case in older countries, especially among the 'bourgeoisie.'

In conclusion, what have been 'the general Educational and Social effects of this drawing together of the Home and the School'? First, as we have seen, the desire for co-operation is growing steadily. Educational authorities almost everywhere are asking for it. But more hopeful still is the fact that teachers and parents in many cases and more frequently, are becoming keen to establish such co-operation. Again, when co-operation has been tried out tactfully and with the right background it has never failed so far as I know, and both parents, teachers and children have benefited enormously by it. Co-operation between the Home and School can accomplish almost anything. It is sometimes almost unbelievably successful.

Another encouraging fact is that, the younger generations being everywhere less individualistic, more socially inclined than the older ones, young parents and young teachers are less likely to ignore one another in the future. Also, the great economic difficulties of the present have at least one good influence; they do tend to make people more co-operative. Co-operation between Home and School is therefore likely to become increasingly popular and increasingly easy.

On the other hand, there may be dangers ahead. There have been unfortunate set-backs. Some dictator Governments, though not all of them, seem to be anxious that the individual should be wholly absorbed by the State, should exist solely for the State; they seem to forget that the free development of the individual is a human need. It is difficult to believe that the kind of co-operation that we wish to see established between the Home and the School can exist under such conditions. That is only one more reason for those of us who still believe in democracies to uphold our liberties—and to appreciate them, even if democracies do have some disagreeable characteristics! And it is a reason for those of us who live under dictatorships to strive hard to establish the right spirit in the schools, and the right kind of co-operation between the children, the family, the teachers and the Education Authorities.

We have seen that co-operation between Home and School is an absolute necessity for the World. We all feel that it is a cause worth working for."

Miss J. R. Crosbie (Liverpool) remarked that thirty years ago we had children who were dirty, irregular, unpunctual, undisciplined. The fathers and mothers were rough and antagonistic. They belonged to the Parish and were quite outside the School. The School was told to mind its own business, and they would mind theirs. But to-day it is very different—can we picture it without being proud? To-day it seems as if we have had a very beautiful tapestry in the making for thirty years, and all this time we have only seen the back of the picture and all the muddle of colours. And now somebody has turned it round and we find, to our surprise, and greatly to our joy, what a wonderful picture we have made, far more wonderful than we thought, a picture of beauty and of love and of co-operation. And what has done this? Bringing the mothers and fathers into the School and making them feel that they are as much a part of it as we are.

Somebody once even said to her "Fancy getting baths for the mothers: that's not your job." Who defined our job? Who has the right to say that reading and writing and arithmetic are the be all and end all of schools? Education is the be all and the end all of our school—and to that end every school should be a social centre—not only for children from five to fourteen, but for people who want a great deal more education—the men and women. It should be given wherever there is ignorance. A child of three knows all it ought to know. It is the men and women who do not know nearly enough.

A School for the Unadjusted Child

Miss C. C. Craven said that her school, the "New York State Training School for Girls" at Hudson, New York, is one to which the children's courts of New York State sends its delinquent children, or, as we would rather term them, the unadjusted or underprivileged children, who range in ages from eleven up to twenty-one. Every pupil is said to have normal intelligence, yet about seventy-five present are scholastically retarded.

What has caused this retardation? Why are these girls placed under State care? Who is responsible?

As you peruse personal record after record, you will find that in most instances the home or school failed to know the individual child. Had there been more co-operation between these two great institutions, the child might never have come to us, with its unhealthy body and poisoned mind. Some school or community is responsible through its neglect.

The majority of our girls will tell you that there was no co-operation between their home and the school. Why? Have not Parent-Teacher Organisations existed for several years? The answer is partially in the fact that the Parent-Teacher Organisations have not as yet reached the mother of the problem child. Too often the School never sees parents until some misdemeanour or grave offence has been committed by the child. Then it is often too late for proper guidance. Another time when the School meets this parent is when the parent, angered by the child's story of some school affair, comes to the school demanding attention for her child. Schools appease the parent, but so often they do not delve beneath the surface to find the real cause of the trouble. So often a problem child is a physically unfit one that has been known to both parent and teacher as healthy.

The future of the Parent-Teacher Association must be closer contact with the parent of the problem child. We all know that it is a certain group that attend meetings of the Parent-Teacher Association, but in the future it must be a more democratic group—a group which represents the whole community of parents. It must find ways and means of making contact with these parents.

M. Theodore Dejace (Belgium) deplored the condition of the schools in his country, and said in general the situation is serious. He quoted the official figures for retarded children, showing that the number of these is increasing year by year.

If this state of affairs is to be remedied, there must be co-operation between parents and teachers. The parents must be made to understand the actual facts of the situation in the schools instead of, as now, being entirely ignorant of them.

The movement should be towards a large association, embracing all the parents, grouped around the school, to demand from the commune, province or State, the complete

equipment of the schools, which are now not equipped at all, so that the teachers have to work under grave disadvantages. And there must be the greatest care taken of necessitous children. Classes must be smaller, and parents should be allowed to know more about what is done in the schools. At present the parents do not know that they have the right to demand these things in the interests of the welfare of their children. There must be free co-operation with the teachers, without distinction of party or political opinion. Ultimately the interests of the teachers are the same as those of the parents. There can be no chance of happiness for the children in miserably equipped schools manned by discouraged teachers. There must be a union between the teachers and also a union among the parents to defend and to ameliorate the schools.

Co-operation in Russia

Mr. Nicolai Golovin (Rural school teacher to a collective farm in the Leningrad District) said that the education of the children is regarded as one of the main tasks before Russia, not only education in the school, but education for membership of the family and of the State. The schools aim at creating the new man who is to fit into the new society which is coming into being in the world. They provide systematic instruction for the child, and also mould his outlook, always remembering that the child spends from nineteen to twenty hours a day in his own home. This is why so much importance is attached to the question of the environment of the child in his home in our system of education. Every teacher tries to make himself familiar with the conditions in the home. He speaks to the parents and inquires as to the child's behaviour in the home, and as to whether this presents any difficulties. In many cases there are unsatisfactory conditions as to housing, feeding, clothing, etc. Instruction is given as to the best way of bringing up the child, from observations of his behaviour at school, and the inclinations he shows there.

In the school there are no punishments, either physical or moral, and the teachers further combat the parents' tendency to use methods of coercion with the children. Inquiry at the school elicited the information from one child that his father used to beat him, and after considerable

argument and persuasion he was made to promise never again to use this kind of punishment. Thus we study the parents and the home life of our children.

To give an example of the value of co-operation between the teachers and the home in educating the child, and in helping to mould character, there was in our school a very naughty child, and the teachers tried to find out the reasons for his naughtiness. Inquiry showed that at home he was neglected: his parents were always very busy, and left him without any direction as to how to use his leisure. As the result of talks with the parents and instruction as to how to direct his leisure activities, he was helped to mould his character anew. Another child looked very worried: he was pale and weak. A visit to the home showed that his parents were very strict and severe; here again, as the result of talks with the parents, and gaining their co-operation, the conditions at home were changed with good results.

Mr. Golovin also drew attention to the following fact. His experience stretched over twenty-eight years in one school, both before and after the Revolution. Before the Revolution, none of the children had a chance to finish their schooling, because they had to go on land while still young. Not one of them ever got to a high school. Now, as the result of changes in rural conditions, some of the pupils from the rural schools get as far as the universities, and eventually become, for instance, teachers, professors, engineers, etc., and they continue to keep in touch with their school, visiting it again and telling their former teachers of their experiences.

In our District, Mr. Golovin continued, there has been established a special school for parents, which is attended in the afternoon by the parents who are members of the Collective Farm. These parents spend their spare time at the School, making up for their own defective education by learning spelling, etc. When first opened it was attended by only ten, but in the present year the attendance is about ninety. Very close contact is maintained between the School and the Collective Farm which belongs to the parents of our pupils; and the agricultural work on it is done by the parents. The School is supplied by the parents with free material for its needs, and they help by doing necessary repairs. Thus there is all the time a close connection between the work of the teachers and of the parents.

Part of what was still being only attempted elsewhere had already been achieved in Russia, where it is not confined

only to one or two towns or villages, but is the general rule throughout the country.

M. Garnier (France) observed that for a long time the idea of co-operation between home and school aroused no interest at all in his country. There was a great deal of antagonism, especially in the fairly large towns. Now, for some twelve years, parents' associations have been formed in most towns and villages, and number over 5,000 in all. The good thing is, he said, that these parents' associations have not remained isolated; they have been grouped together in a National Federation of Parents' Associations. This was very necessary, because it connected these associations also with the State.

Miss West (West Bromwich) said that her Association was formed about ten years ago, when they were starting a new educational experiment for which it was not possible to obtain money from the authorities. A committee was set up on which parents and teachers were equally represented. The neighbourhood was extremely poor—families of ten and twelve living in one room. To equip the school with the necessary apparatus £1,000 was needed, and of this the parents collected £100 in one year. Some of the methods of raising the money have been educational in themselves, e.g. concerts, etc. Another activity has been the holding of film evenings once a week to try and keep the children out of the picture palaces. A rota of parents is drawn upon to look after the children.

Among the most outstanding results may be mentioned the increased happiness of the children. They are now clean and healthy. The parents have an added sense of responsibility, and of co-operation in training for character. They feel that the school is theirs, and they take a pride in it. They help to keep it clean, they do the washing, and keep the school provided with flowers—even in winter.

The experiment has been a great help to the staff, who can see the results of their work, and feel that it is worth while.

Miss Pennethorne outlined the origin and scope of the Parents' National Educational Union which celebrates its Jubilee next year.

The Movement began by the formation of small groups of parents and teachers to discuss a philosophy and outlook on discipline and personality. There are now many branches, and their journal, *The Parents' Review*, goes all over the world.

They assert their belief in a common opportunity for all men, based on three things in which the work of the parent is required just as much as that of the teacher: first, the recognition of authority—all that is the best of its kind and the most inspired, in Art, Literature and Science, irrespective of the country of its origin, must be appropriated for the child. The pupil must make direct contact with these and gain his own impression of it immediately—though this does not eliminate the need for the teacher. Second and third are concentration and attention, whether to the opportunity of the moment or the work of a lifetime. For these three things parents and teachers everywhere work together, and on them we have based our programme.

The Pre-School Child

Dr. Marie Montessori

“Civilization has so far proceeded along the lines of the well-being of the adult, and legislation has worked on the same lines. In all this legislation the child has been entirely left out. The child lives in two environments—that of the home and the school. Now these two environments are separate from one another: the school can have no responsibility for the child as part of the family, and the family, on its side, cannot penetrate within the school environment with any kind of authority. Neither in one environment nor the other is there any realisation of the fact that it is possible to repress the child as regards his vital needs or to deform him in his essential being.

We must start then from this conception of the child, that here we have a being whose needs are mysterious and unknown, and whose ability is unfathomed by us, and who is face to face with two different tribunals, by both of which he is being judged and condemned. In the child we are dealing with what is essentially the future of the whole of humanity.

Everything living has its own laws of being—not by chance does this growth take place; here we have the fundamental reality that underlies all the questions which confront the child. The child is a being whose psychological development starts from its own level and proceeds in an environment which is extraordinarily complicated. We have to know and respect the psychological laws of this development, otherwise, in spite of Nature's planning, we shall

have a creature that Nature never intended, something deformed. The child, if he is to grow, must have the opportunity of exercising his activities. This he cannot do unless we prepare for him an environment which is adapted to his needs. This development is not assisted by subjecting him either to a tyrannical paternal influence, or to similar authority in the school. On the contrary, the centre of all is to be the child's deep need for growth. If this can be realised, there will result a new type of child who brings promise of better manhood. This question of the child must be solved by each and all of us. The child, quite clearly, cannot solve the question for himself. We must assume the responsibility of constructing a suitable environment for him.

Now, if the child is the centre of all, it is obvious that the school and family should harmonise and work together towards this aim. The child, being the centre of all, the school must be reconstructed around his essential needs. The school must be his protector and furnish him with the *means of development*. *The knowledge we have of the child* should influence all that is done there. The important thing in the school is not the arbitrary rule laid down by the adult, but the child and his needs. In the family, the same criterion has to form the basis of the treatment of the child, and the aim which is to set in harmony the school and the family must be achieved by an awakening conscience. In carrying this out, we must realise the noble and lofty mission of the child himself. The child, as he grows, is creating the man on whom the future of humanity depends. The place where all this can be realised is in the Pre-school. It is here that the child can be helped toward this evolution. Thus we can arrive at a harmonious union in the service of the needs of the child both in the home and in the school. Therefore we can see that the question of the little child lies at the very root of the social problem."

" Know you her secret can utter ?
 Her of the Book, the tripled Crown ?
 Still on the spire the pigeons flutter
 Still by the gateway flits the gown :
 Still in the street, from corbel and gutter
 Faces of stone look down."

—QUILLER-COUCH.

From " Oxford and Poetry," by R. Kennard Davis, M.A.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

Chairman : MISS A. E. PHILLIPS (Avery Hill Training College, Eltham, London).

Secretary : DEAN H. L. SMITH (President of National Education Association, U.S.A.).

Place of Meeting : The Taylor Institute.

FIRST SESSION : MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST,

10.0 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

General Topic : " PRE-COLLEGE WORK AND EXPERIENCE OF STUDENTS IN TRAINING."

SECOND SESSION : MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST,

2.0 P.M. TO 4.30 P.M.

General Topic : " CENTRES OF INTEREST VERSUS SEPARATE SUBJECTS."

The morning session was particularly well attended. In addition to large groups from America, England and Japan, representatives were present from Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Sweden, Australia, New Zealand, China, the Straits Settlements and Finland. In the afternoon the League of Nations, Switzerland and Canada were represented also, and L.E.A.'s had sent delegates.

It was moved and carried unanimously that, in order to secure continuity in the working of the section and to retain the valuable experience of the Chairman, Miss Phillips, and the Secretary, Dean Smith, they be re-elected for the next conference.

Miss A. E. Phillips opened with a comprehensive survey of the history of the training of teachers during the past hundred years. She traced its development from the narrow training of the early years to the present day training which received at certification the stamp of the University. She

expressed her conviction that in the future the University would have to open its doors to all intending teachers, for it was, as Viscount Haldane had said, the University-trained teacher who had the "wide universe of discourse" which every teacher needs, and who could make perplexing things plain by referring them back to simple first principles.

The immediate step was to ensure that all intending teachers, before entering college, received a broad education, "such courses and, if necessary, such examinations as will test study and clear thinking adequately."

In the training college a new course might well be evolved in which the student developed his own intellectual bent in pursuing his subjects to a higher standard, and at the same time learned and practised the technique of presenting his subject. "Substance of knowledge" and "technique" were inseparable parts of the teacher's equipment.

Should the adolescent begin to practise teaching while still a learner in the secondary school? Miss Phillips thought that there was need of a scheme whereby the intending teacher might have "a preliminary canter of the nature of observation and association with teachers in the classroom rather than of formal teaching with responsibility for a class." Such a system of making early contacts with the elementary school and its problems should be so organised as to avoid breaking the term's course of studies in the secondary schools. It might well be continued in the University years with their shorter terms.

In conclusion, Miss Phillips referred to the grave problems of the health, mental and physical, of the adolescent, and suggested that there was much matter for consideration here, when the question of the organising of secondary courses should come under review later in the day.

Pre-College Work and Experience of Students in Training

The first paper was read by Dr. Margaret Phillips (Senior Lecturer in English, Huddersfield Technical College; formerly of Avery Hill Training College) on "Pre-College Work and Experience of Students in Training." She stressed the importance of a good general education as a preliminary to training. The training college did not require specialised preparation of its entrants, nor were training college staffs as a whole inclined to find much value

in the comparatively undirected observation and practice of the student teacher. She thought that "as uninterrupted a share as possible in the normal studies, responsibilities and recreations of the Sixth Form" was the best preparation for the intending teacher. The recognition of this principle was an essential step forward to attaining the ideal of University status for teachers in all types of school. Although the candidate's general education must not be interrupted at this early stage, some schemes had already been evolved whereby intending teachers during their last years in the secondary schools visited elementary schools for short periods, and made contact with teachers and children.

Dean Smith, commenting upon this paper, said that he was interested to find that the problems confronting the United States and the United Kingdom in the training of teachers were identical. We were living in a transition era in which the apparent trend was to change from preparation for teaching to preparation for learning, and to an examination of the content of curriculum.

School management, degrees of specialisation, etc., should be examined and experimented upon to ascertain the right emphasis upon different aspects of school work. Such guidance could be the core of the training college scheme of work.

Superintendent Grover C. Bowman (North Adams, Massachusetts) gave a most interesting account of those methods of selecting teachers of which he had experience. He pointed out that there was no standard qualification of teachers in the U.S.A. nor within the boundaries of his own State of Massachusetts. Nevertheless, the standard in some States was very high, and the proportion of trained to untrained teachers in Massachusetts, for instance, was most gratifying. In choosing teachers he believed that great stress must be laid upon values of personality as well as upon academic ability. Certain traits were to be looked for in the aspirant to the profession, and among these he placed very high conscientiousness, thoroughness, emotional balance, tact, self control, initiative, dependability, originality in thinking and acting, self-criticism, courage, good physique and vitality. A real interest in children was of paramount importance. These qualities were not, he agreed, measurable by scale, but it was the business of the secondary schools to make themselves responsible, in their knowledge of their

own pupils, for some such classification. He stressed his own awareness of the dangers of such a system of checks on personality, if misused.

In the discussion which followed, Mr. John Power put the point of view of the young teacher. He agreed with the first speakers upon the value of a liberal education in the last years of secondary school life and in their view of the danger of premature segregation for the intending teacher. He was opposed to the pupil teacher system in any form. Up to the present no teacher-training system had been evolved which prepared the young teacher to take a full part in the life of the world, and therefore for the life of school.

Mrs. Williams (N.U.T., Liverpool), taking up the points raised by Superintendent Bowman's paper, acclaimed his high idealism, but requested that consideration should be given to the practical problems of how to give the intending teacher some experience of the elementary school at an early stage, without unduly interrupting his academic progress.

Mr. J. D. Ross (E.I.S.) gave a brief review of the situation in Scotland. There all men teachers in any kind of school were University graduates, save for the specialist teachers of handwork, etc. (some 20 per cent.). Women might or might not be graduates. Candidates were selected by interview, on personality, voice and physique. The present policy of the Educational Institute of Scotland was, first, to demand identical conditions and status for men and women; secondly, to replace the present qualification, Degree plus Diploma, by a Degree in Education. Candidates would be obliged to declare their intention of entering the profession at the beginning of their University career. This would finally remove the aspersion cast on the profession that men who failed to get a footing in other professions "took to teaching" as a last resort.

Mr. W. J. Rodda (N.U.T. Executive) told the meeting that in his experience, in East Anglia, still too many children in the secondary schools were directed into teaching by the head masters or mistresses, who took the line of least resistance in helping their pupils to find a place in life.

Mr. G. James (N.U.T., Cambridgeshire) put in a plea that the meeting should remember how much was to be said

for the teachers produced by the old systems, for their qualities of personality and their real knowledge of the children they taught. There were great teachers among them. He thought that the ideal of a degree plus two years' training was desirable for every teacher, but was it attainable? Could the State afford this?

At this stage of discussion Dean Smith reviewed the principal arguments. He referred first of all to the difficulty of understanding terms which varied in their meaning from one nation to another. Dean Smith agreed with Supt. Bowman's idealism but, defending the work of the statistical experimenter in education, he pointed out the value of "scientific selection of content in reaching the goals and ends of education." He stressed the need of a broad groundwork of education, preparing students to understand society and their function in it. Could a University education do this?

The training of a teacher must be progressive. New ideals must be made familiar to those who were to foster social orders. Progress he defined as "stability with flexibility"—guidance and control of new ideas while they were being tested out. Thus there must be a broad and sympathetic training for the teacher.

Mr. G. V. Brooks (Director of Education, Tasmania) gave the administrator's point of view. In selecting teachers he looked for educational qualifications and for those qualities which marked the "born teacher." He gave a most interesting account of the method of selection in Tasmania. All schools were examined at fifteen +. (To the English group in the audience the examination seemed to approximate to English matriculation). Candidates for teaching were selected on their examination results, and by interview and medical examination. Those successful became probationary students. During the next two years they spent two periods a week observing or taking lessons in a demonstration school. During this period they were observed, and approximately 10-15 per cent. passed out as unsatisfactory. The rest became junior teachers, giving their whole time to teaching.

It was, he felt, a kindness to redirect into other walks of life, at an early stage, candidates who were definitely unsuitable for teaching.

Training courses might be one, two or three years in

duration. The best students took a degree in their three years. Such students were expected to present a thesis showing considerable research work in education. Questioned on the varying length of courses, Mr. Brooks made it clear that the short training given to some teachers was a policy dictated by financial considerations alone. Such teachers would probably take charge of the very many small schools of fewer than twenty children.

Mr. L. Hyman (Leeds L.E.A.) also spoke from the administrator's point of view. He advocated strongly an extension of the training years, and deprecated the unsatisfactory loan system which brought excessive economic pressure to bear on young teachers. The nation demanded teachers and must train and pay for them. He thought that most people found the training of teachers for nursery and infant schools satisfactory. The middle school period was unsatisfactory; since we could not know what we wanted until we understood our system as indicated (but not yet implemented) by the Hadow Report.

Dr. Mary Sanders (Furzedown Training College, London), speaking as a training-college lecturer, outlined what she considered to be of most importance in the pre-college education of students in training. She thought that to have received a good general education at a first-rate school was of incalculable value. Our adolescents were overtrained; less intensive work had been proved to lead to better results. The results to be aimed at were the ability to take an intelligent part in modern civilisation—to read a newspaper intelligently, take an interest in the march of science, appreciate music, painting and literature. During the training period she advocated, as important parts of the course, the development of individual bent in studying one subject (chosen by the student) for the purposes of interest and self-expression, and the establishment of social contacts with men and women working in factories and workshops, etc.

Mr. J. W. Lawton (N.U.T., Lancs.), speaking of the danger of premature segregation of intending teachers, referred to the teacher's life as a "vicious circle" from infant school round to school again; and stressed the importance of enriching the teacher's experience by wide social contacts in the university of life.

H. Kaaland-Jorgenson (Chief Inspector of Training Colleges in Denmark) gave a full and extremely interesting account of the systems in that country. There were, he said, two systems preparing for the elementary and secondary schools. Both trainings were of equal length, usually from, if necessary, five years, and both were considered of equal value. There was no interchange of teachers because the class organisation in the elementary school made it essential for each teacher to be responsible for all subjects with his form, and the University teacher was a specialist in two or three subjects. There was, however, a middle school for pupils of eleven to fifteen years, which might be attached to either elementary or secondary school according to administrative needs, and for this teachers of either system were eligible. The starting-point of salary was 3,000 sch. for the elementary teacher, 3,300 for the secondary. As the majority of elementary teachers were in rural districts where the cost of living was low, this small apparent difference was further reduced in actuality. Secondary teachers rose to a higher maximum. Referring to the training course for teachers in elementary schools, the Inspector said that in the third year students taught four lessons a week, in the fourth year nine lessons. In these two years, after they have passed the examination in the natural sciences, they study principles of education while engaged in practical work in school.

Mr. E. Holden (Gloucester Technical College) pleaded that while consideration was being given to raising the academic qualifications and lengthening the professional preparation of the teacher, due attention should be paid to the entrant from industry, commerce, etc.; that "an open door" should remain open for specialist teachers so recruited, and that provision should be made for their guidance.

Mr. W. H. Spikes (N.U.T.) was concerned with the place of the secondary schools in training intending teachers. He pointed out that the schools were at present governed by University requirements. At fourteen or fifteen pupils began to settle to a "narrow group of academic subjects." Therefore they were from the outset hampered, as people who later should be giving others a broad education. There was no time for them to develop an intelligent interest in themselves or in the essentials of everyday life outside the boundary of a narrow academic life. He said that they were not

educating in the secondary school; they were preparing for examinations. Teachers, he concluded, were inadequately prepared for their job in their school background.

Dr. Paul A. Witty (School of Education, Northwestern University, Illinois, U.S.A.), gave a wide review of the problems connected with specialisation in school subjects.

Prof. Arrowood (Professor of Education, Texas) took up the question of centres of interest in the Junior-Senior High School. He said that specialisation had produced gratifying results in the primary school, and there must therefore be a place for it. The danger lay in a biased type of specialisation where precision, rather than insight into a subject, had been the main factor. Richness of presentation in teaching a subject was the essential and vital factor.

Dean Smith said that experiments on centres of interest were going on in various States. There was a change in teaching traditions, an effort to get away from pigeon-holing subject-matter. It was less important to stress methods of teaching a special subject than to strive towards the educational goal which lay beyond the teaching of all subjects. In the training of teachers, lecture methods might give place to group work among the students, in order that the students should have personal experience of learning by the new methods.

Miss B. H. Bowen (U.S.A.) gave several examples from her own experience of teaching children on this method.

Prof. Tomoeda (Tokyo) told the meeting that seven years ago two Universities had been founded in Japan especially for teachers, and that these had exactly the same status as the other Universities. In order to avoid narrow-mindedness in the students, and remoteness from actual life, the courses of study were revised some years ago; and now all students were taught some subjects in common—for example, philosophy, civics, the history of art, a general survey of natural science or mathematics. He considered it of great importance that the child, like the student, should have a broad education in which the parts were related to the whole, and knowledge related to life.

The section was particularly fortunate in having the services of Dean Smith as secretary, assisted by Mr. V. R. Shaw (N.U.T., London).

Revolution, the education of young children was recognised to be a matter of state importance. Consequently the network of kindergartens began to spread rapidly.

The kindergartens are under the People's Commissariats of Education of the Constituent Republics of the Union.

They are attended by children from three to seven years of age, who remain in the kindergarten for nine or ten hours a day and even fourteen hours, which allows of their taking walks, having a day nap and being fed in the institution. Their meals are abundant; they receive butter, eggs, vegetables, apples, oranges and other fruits, etc.

In this way the kindergarten not only gives a collective education to the children but also liberates the women who are enabled to take part in political, industrial and social life and study.

The essential characteristics of pre-school work in the Soviet Union are the following:

1. A tendency to serve with kindergartens large masses of the working population both in cities and in the country.
2. The close connection of the kindergartens with industrial plants, state and collective farms.
3. Great attention paid to the work with parents.
4. The deepening of the pedagogical work.
5. A continual growth of kindergartens and playgrounds.

In 1929 there were 2,219 permanent kindergartens in the R.S.F.S.R. with 115,000 children enrolled.

In 1934 there were 20,400 pre-school institutions with one million children enrolled; besides, more than three million children were enrolled in temporary, seasonal playgrounds.

The total expenditure for the maintenance of pre-school institutions amounts to 1,102,103,400 roubles for 1935 according to the control figures of the People's Commissariat of Education.

Party organs pay great attention to pre-school education; it is often discussed in the big papers.

The kindergarten curriculum is published by the people's Commissariat of Education (R.S.F.S.R.) and takes into consideration the aims of Communist education as well as children's characteristics at different ages. It includes directions concerning a social and political education, the formation of cultural and hygienic habits and all other branches of education."

The paper then proceeded to describe the purpose and methods of dealing with nature study, music and art expression in the nursery school and kindergarten. Though the work in a kindergarten was directed by the curriculum, the latter was adjusted to local environment; a wealth of material for nature study and art work was thus provided for creative play. For example, in winter snow modelling provided an excellent medium for self expression, the children digging tunnels and wells, and building houses with coloured ice for windows. Great emphasis was put upon the contribution of environment to the children's artistic development and special attention was paid to the cleanliness and decoration of kindergarten premises.

The importance of musical education and its close connection with general education and health improvement was generally recognised and musical work was carried on in two ways: there were regular music periods and, in addition, all the children's activities were sandwiched with music.

In all branches of the kindergarten curriculum practical work was closely connected with research.

(Reports on the Advance of the Pre-School Movement were continued on Tuesday.)

Recent Advances in the Psychology of the First Five Years

Dr. Susan Isaacs (Head of the Department of Child Development, University of London)

I.—Introduction

Difficult to survey in three-quarters of an hour even the more outstanding recent researches. Will attempt to select those additions to our knowledge which specially illuminate the practical issues of early education and early mental hygiene.

Three main modes of study have contributed to our further understanding:

1. OBSERVATIONAL studies, e.g. Bridges's on social and emotional development; Goodenough's on anger in young children; Bühler's on development in the first year of life; my own on intellectual and social development in nursery school ages and the incidence of early neuroses.

2. EXPERIMENTAL tests of intelligence and development, e.g. Gesell, Shirley, Bühler, Stutsman and many others.

3. PSYCHO-ANALYTIC studies, by the direct method, of children from eighteen months onwards: Melanie Klein and Melitta Schmideberg on the etiology of the neuroses and psychoses and intellectual inhibition; and the significance of play and normal skills and interests in the development of the ordinary child.

These modes of study converge in their conclusions upon many fundamental issues.

II.—Outstanding Additions to Knowledge

A. For convenience, intellectual (including practical) and social and emotional developments are often dealt with separately. One of the more important additions to understanding is that these are not independent issues, and in the first two years can hardly be considered apart.

(a) The situations giving rise to intelligent questions about physical causality are bound up with primitive interests.

(b) Early phobias involving unconscious "phantasies" can be regarded either as feelings or as ideas. The intellectual process arises from the emotional. The child's early logic (e.g. the early types of causality noted by Piaget, such as motivation, finalism, phenomenalism) is of the greatest importance not only *re* failure to understand physical world, but *re* early anxieties and emotional difficulties.

Important practical bearings on mental hygiene.

B. DEVELOPMENT IN THE FIRST FIVE YEARS NOT SIMPLE: falls into well-marked phases: 1 month to c., 5-6 months; 5-6 months to the mastery of walking and talking (c. 15 months); 15-18 months to 3 years; 3 to 5 years. The needs of these periods are different and have important practical bearings.

These phases do not fall on the old stratigraphical lines. Significant differences between one phase and another arise from (a) the cumulative effect of experience, and (b) the interaction of cognitive processes with instinctual and affective needs. The youngest infant is a problem-solver. He is never concerned with "developing his own senses" or his own skills, but always with solving a problem. Phantasy and imagination begin in the first few months. Habit and imitation are always directed by interest.

C. THE FIRST YEAR. Intellectual growth rooted in instinctual needs. Dominance of oral activity, subordination of other skills to this during first nine months. Recognition and signs of memory first occur in the feeding situation and then concerned with other aspects of the child's relation to his mother. Interest in face throughout the early months. Dominance of negative expressional movements, flight and defence up to five months. Growth of positive expressional movements after five months to the end of the first year. Increase in social causes of pain and pleasure, and importance of frustration of impulses as a cause of anxiety, after five months. Change of accent from sensory to social stimuli as main source of anxiety occurs with the development of perception of persons. Experimental interest in persons in second half of year.

Two main directions of intellectual development :

(1) Gradual increase of positive, and lessening of negative responses.

(2) Reduction of single reactions and impulsive movements in favour of directed and experimental activities (including vocalisations), a change occurring about the fifth month. Organised play activities and the rudimentary use of tools in the second half of the year.

These objective facts *re* critical period of five to six months now further illuminated by Melanie Klein in her work on the psychogenesis of manic-depressive states. Emphasises on the fact that the period when the child first comes to the full perception of the mother as a whole person is a nodal point for later development, since this perception carries with it the awareness that the loved person is also the object of impulses of hate and aggression. "The normal development of the child and his capacity for love largely depend upon how the ego works through this nodal position."

D. EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT FROM 15-18 MONTHS TO 3 YEARS. Frequency of tantrums, obstinacies, phobias, breakdowns in cleanliness in ordinary children. Failure of reflex theories of habit as key to development in this period. Normality of such emotional difficulties. The relation between these phenomena and the major problems of the

child's life, e.g. love and hate, the control of aggression, partings, losses, rivalries, ignorance and lack of skill. The essential need for some understanding of early mental hygiene by mothers and nurses.

The psychological processes by which the child overcomes his difficulties. The importance of correct norms. The value of make-believe play and the development of normal skills for mental hygiene. The importance of avoiding undue anxiety in the parent and nurse. The special needs of the two-year-old in the nursery school.

E. THREE TO FIVE YEARS.

(a) Objective work on social phenomena—increase in size of groups—modes of social intercourse, underlying motives leading to social development. Situations which give rise to aggression and to co-operation. No longer necessary or possible to postulate a "Social instinct" appearing at six and seven years. The roots of Social life lie in the relation of the child to his parents, and phases of change and development leading to socialisation can be seen throughout the first five years. Changes in the child's relation with adults parallel changes in his relations to other children.

(b) Bound up with this problem of social development is the question of the etiology of *guilt*. Evidence that a sense of guilt and responsibility develops spontaneously in the young child and is inherent in early mental development. The relation of moral responsibility to the earliest anxieties and phantasies.

F. All these threads come together in our greater and more detailed appreciation of the *function of play* during the first five years. (a) Its intellectual value; play as the child's attempt to understand the physical and social worlds. E.g. the significance of make-believe play in developing hypothetical reasoning; (b) the significance of play for mental hygiene in the normal child.

A brief discussion followed, in which Dr. Katharine M. B. Bridges (McGill University, Montreal), and Dr. Maurice Hamblin Smith (Editor of the *Journal of Mental Science*), took part.

SECOND SESSION, MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST, 2.0 P.M.

SYMPOSIUM ON THE ÆSTHETIC EXPERIENCE OF YOUNG CHILDREN

Chairman : MISS LILLIAN DE LISSA (PRINCIPAL, GIPSY HILL TRAINING COLLEGE, LONDON ; CHAIRMAN, NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN).

The Chairman said : " Education in the past has been too much concerned with intellectual development, too little with emotional, æsthetic and intuitive ; too much with the attempt to train children to be this or that, too little with the desire to help them to open out naturally and to give expression to those urges, impulses, interests and powers that make our complex human nature.

Psychological research and observation of children have given us a wider and deeper understanding, and as a result education is tending to become what that true friend of little children, Frœbel, said it should be—that is ' passive and following.' The teacher with her plans, schemes and programmes, and her adult standard of behaviour, is ceasing to be centre stage and education is becoming a process of spontaneous and natural growth.

In no aspect of education is the effect of this change more marked than in the subjects of our session to-day ; all children love living and growing things and desire to care for them, and it is indeed an exceptional child who does not respond to music, who does not sing and dance—and who does not want to draw, paint and model ; and in the free school of to-day all these aspects of spontaneous activity have prominent place.

The child shows interest in rhythm at a very tender age. In the first year of life, children have been observed to move arms and legs rhythmically—then to imitate their own rhythms and repeat them ; and at as early an age as one year and two months, children can repeat a rhythm given by another. The universal belief in the influence of music on infants has given us some of our loveliest songs in the form of lullabies. I suppose the modern hygienic practice of not merely refraining from rocking the baby to sleep, but of leaving it to go to sleep in silence and alone has sounded the death knell to that form of music ! I wonder if it has

also robbed the child of something valuable and irreplaceable?

In recent years there have been many experiments in drawing and most remarkable results have been obtained where children have been left free with good and ample material. The great pioneer here, of course, is Professor Cizek, whose work in Vienna has created world-wide interest. Inspired by him, many experiments have been made in other parts of the world and most interesting work is being done at present in our own County Council schools by Miss Richardson and her colleagues.

Many young children show remarkable skill and power in drawing that suggest genius, or at least, special talent, but it is found that with the largest majority the interest and power fade out at the approach to adolescence, never to re-appear. Does this not suggest that what appears to be aesthetic interest is in reality evidence of the strong urge for self-expression and for making external what children are trying to understand or are specially interested in?

In the pre-School years are the beginning of all development and in watching young children playing freely one is aware of the many ways in which they begin their æsthetic development. One way is in their use of material. In the first stage, the child's interest is in the activity; the material used is of very subordinate interest. Any material that serves the purpose of his activity is acceptable and the child will swing or bang with equal enjoyment, a rattle, a doll or a gold watch! From this he passes through many phases until he reaches the stage in which the interest is in construction and creation. At this stage, material is chosen with discrimination and activity is planned with forethought. This passing from the primitive interest in activity, often purposeless, to that of using the activity to transform material and to stamp it with his individuality, is one of the ways in which the child reveals himself as distinct from the animal and essentially a human being made in the image of the Divine Creator.

Another very characteristic activity of early years definitely connected with æsthetic development is the child's interest in the 'perceptual discovery of his environment.' Children want to see and to touch, to hear and to sense everything they meet. If the environment is wisely and well equipped and provides both stimulus and nurture, the child builds up a wealth of sense impressions, keen powers of observation, a refined sensitiveness to colour and sound, to texture and

form and begins to develop that indefinable something known as taste. I remember in particular one little girl who was very attracted to colour. Her interest was aroused in the first instance by the Montessori colour material from which she passed on to handling and arranging many of the beautiful coloured fabrics and materials available at her Nursery School. At four and a half or five years of age, she became interested in the arrangement of flowers and made many very delightful experiments in colour schemes—sometimes putting all flowers of one colour and shade together, sometimes trying marked contrasts, sometimes grading in one vase all flowers of one colour and different shades. On one occasion, having arranged a bowl of sweet peas to her satisfaction, or perhaps I should say to her inspiration, she placed them on a low table and drawing up a chair beside them spontaneously created and sang a little song about them—addressed apparently to the flowers. She was quite unconscious of being observed and was a very beautiful sight. I do not know if this æsthetic experience should be classified with music and claimed by Miss Carnell, or with nature and claimed by Miss Crosland, or whether it belongs to general æsthetic sensitiveness and so belongs to art generally as Dr. Viola will deal with it. Let us now turn to the business of the meeting and settle the matter.”

MUSIC

Miss Mabel Carnell (England)

“In their student days, most teachers are reminded that the verb ‘to teach’ takes two objects, i.e. ‘I teach music’ and ‘I teach the child,’ and I think it is usually desirable that *specialist* teachers should examine their consciences from time to time with regard to this statement lest a natural enthusiasm for their subject makes them overlook the wider claims of their pupils. This is perhaps more particularly the case where the very young child is concerned. Pre-school work is not the place for any formal teaching, but should rather concern itself with providing an environment which is conducive to the greatest all-round growth and development of the child. My experience as a music teacher leads me to think that where pre-school music is concerned, the narrower aim of the musician and the wider aim of the educationist are not necessarily incompatible, though in

actual practice some criticism is justified, both of the specialist and the non-specialist teacher, in that the former does not sufficiently understand the psychological needs of the young child, and the latter is lacking in general musical culture. Possibly the ideal solution of the difficulty would be that a visiting specialist music teacher should work in collaboration with the nursery school teacher who is continually with the children, but where this is not possible for financial or other reasons, it is desirable that the trained nursery school teacher should take the music with the children, but that she should continue her own musical education and have the advice of a professional music teacher.

During the pre-school years the child is largely concerned with physical growth and with what Margaret Drummond has called 'The Dawn of Mind.' The links between these two aspects of development are the avenues of sense by means of which the child gradually learns to differentiate the objects of his environment from himself, and to gain some measure of control over his own body in relation to these objects. Our principal aim, therefore, is to facilitate this dual growth by providing an environment rich in sense training. Music is unique in that it trains the sense of hearing, at the same time that it trains various forms of muscular co-ordination through rhythmic work and singing, thus assisting physical control; meanwhile the dawning mind is learning to memorise words of songs, to compare and discriminate varying pitch and duration of sounds, etc., and receiving its earliest æsthetic experience of one of the greatest of the fine arts. Further, this is a subject which lends itself most admirably to group work with its consequent social training, it offers the variety so necessary with very young children and last, but by no means least in importance, most children thoroughly enjoy the music class. The last quarter of a century has seen a great development in music teaching along the lines of what is usually called 'Musical Appreciation' which might be defined as learning the technique of listening to, and interpreting the meaning of, good music, as distinct from learning the technique of composing or performing music. Mechanical developments in the way of gramophones, broadcast music, increased facilities for concert-going, etc., have further developed the opportunities for applying this 'technique of listening.' It is not without social significance that this development coincides with an increasing emphasis on 'the right use of

leisure' and the recognition that people need education in the right use of leisure. The pre-school educationist who is concerned with the laying of sound foundations, cannot afford to disregard the educational structure as a whole, particularly in the light of what modern psychology has taught us about the importance of the early years."

Miss Carnell briefly outlined the elements which contribute to æsthetic enjoyment of music; the value of folk melodies, nursery rhymes, singing games, rhythmic work and simple pitch games for ear training, and, stressing the importance of good technique and pure tone, urged that they should keep in mind the maxim, "Let first impressions be right ones."

NATURE STUDY

Miss H. M. Crosland (England)

Miss Crosland gave an address on Nature Study and described the result of observations that had been made relating to the reactions of young children to Nature Study. Records had been collected in London, Manchester, Birmingham and from schools in and around Hereford. Miss Crosland quoted numerous extracts from the records which had been classified in three groups:

1. Those dealing with the Nature Table established in the class-room;
2. Those centring around flowers in the class-room;
3. Those resulting from the presence of animals.

Incomplete as the investigations were, they indicated that children of pre-school and kindergarten age showed special interest in

1. The movements of animals.
2. The feeding of animals.
3. The growth changes of plants, including
4. The opening and the colour of flowers.

All those happenings could be watched and most of the things studied could be touched. If such work could be developed in the schools they would be providing for the children's æsthetic experience.

"Many children," said the speaker, "are cut off from such appreciation because of the lack of open space around the school and because of the difficulties of set time-tables. A

daffodil flower bud opens in response to sunlight and temperature and water—not according to time-table. Caterpillars begin to spin at their own time in the day—probably not the time-table's nature study quarter-hour. The dragon-flies have often emerged from their long grub stage in the very midday at the dinner interval. The more we watch the children, the plants and animals around them, the more clear does it become that nature study is no subject for a time-tabled half-hour per week only, but plays a very real part in the surroundings of each child. A babies' room without its flowers and its growing things is as wrong in a school as a condemned house in a slum area."

The records quoted by Miss Crosland showed the eagerness with which very young children collect material and the intense concentration with which they observe the movements of animals and the form, colour and changes of plant life.

CHILD ART: THE DISCOVERY OF PROFESSOR CIZEK

Dr. Wilhelm Viola (Vienna)

"Child Art. Is not that a contradiction? We are entitled to speak of child art under two conditions: First, that we concede to the child the right of his own logic (which may be wrong or which may be right, but which is undoubtedly different from the adult's logic), the right to his own personality, and we must have a certain respect for the child. And the second condition: We must come to an agreement about what is art. If we say art is what is creative, genuine original, really strong, then we are entitled to speak of child art, but if we call art what is only a matter of skill, then we are not.

The man who discovered child art is Professor Franz Cizek, born in 1865 in Bohemia, formerly part of Austria, now Czechoslovakia. Cizek came when he was nineteen to Vienna to become a student of the Academy of Art. He lodged with a poor family which was blessed with children. These children entered his room and saw him painting and drawing and asked for paints and pencils and brushes, which he gave them. The drawings they made were done without any fear or hesitation. Opposite the house was a hoarding

where boys when they came from school made chalk drawings. They were so keen to do it that they even struggled for the right to draw, and what they drew was again done with absolute certainty and the product of their work showed always the same qualities, or, as Cizek said afterwards, revealed the same eternal laws.

Later Cizek saw children's drawings in several countries and always found that they were much alike.

At that time, end of the nineteenth century, there started a new movement in the realms of art, the so-called secession. The younger generation of artists separated from the older ones—the so-called Academicians. Now Cizek was in close contact with these secessionists in Vienna and showed them once the drawings done by the children of the family where he stayed. They were quite excited about them, and they advised him to open a juvenile art school where children should be allowed to draw as they liked, and so Cizek, in 1897, opened the first juvenile art class in the world, of course at that time entirely private.

It can be easily understood that his revolutionary ideas—to let a child draw and paint and model what he liked, choose his own subject, his own medium, never to correct, never to touch the children's work—were met with strong opposition. But there was a Minister of Education in Austria who was told by foreign visitors of Cizek's class and what an extraordinary man there was in Vienna, and so the Minister came to see his juvenile art class, and when he saw he declared, : 'This has to become a State Art Class.' And so, in 1904, the juvenile class became part of the State Applied Art School.

To avoid misunderstandings, it never has been Cizek's scope to produce artists in his juvenile art class. He says there are already too many artists. He regarded, and regards, this class as an experimental class, where children of four to five to fourteen years of age, divided of course into different groups according to their stage of development, have the possibility of expressing themselves quite freely, not spoilt by adults. He says he learns from the children. He does not teach them. He creates the atmosphere in which they can 'gestalten' (which means more or less forming, shaping, creating).

Cizek believes that the child who has the chance to express himself until say, puberty (with puberty most of the children lose their creative power in the realm of art) will keep this creative impulse afterwards in whatever profession he may

choose ; and here we come to a point of tremendous importance : I believe that the destiny of our whole culture will depend upon whether there will be a sufficient number of really creative men and women. If not, our whole culture might collapse. Let us hope there will come a time when not only kindergarten and infants' schools, but all schools, and again not only in their drawing or art department, but also in their whole curriculum, will use Cizek's wonderful discoveries of the child and children will be there what they are almost from their first moment of existence, creative and strong."

(Dr. Viola showed a number of lantern slides of children's drawings which aroused much interest.)

THIRD SESSION, TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST, 10 A.M.

Reports on the Advance of the Pre-School Movement in Recent Years (*continued*)

Chairman : MISS MARY LEEPER

England

Miss Grace Owen (Secretary of the Pre-School and Kindergarten Section and Hon. Adviser of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain) in a review of the recent history and progress of the movement in England said that following the financial crisis of 1931, severe restrictions had been placed upon the establishment of new Nursery Schools, and this had held up the development of the movement. There were sixty-six Nursery Schools in England receiving Government Grant and providing for 5,000 children. The Government had, however, recently announced that recognition could be given to new Nursery Schools in areas where social conditions were unfavourable to a healthy childhood, and they were looking forward to a considerable increase in the number of recognised Nursery Schools during the next few years.

Meanwhile, during these years of discouragement by the State, years of urgent need in the presence of widespread unemployment, poverty and distressing social conditions, there had been increased effort on the part of philanthropic agencies. Amongst these, the Emergency Open-Air Nurseries Committee of the Save the Children Fund had opened eight Emergency Nurseries. four of which had been

recognised by the Board of Education and were in receipt of Government Grant.

There had been a noticeable increase of interest in Nursery Schools on the part of people in comfortable circumstances, and private Nursery Schools charging fees were springing up. New training courses were developing; London and Manchester Universities had recently organised Training Courses for students on the pre-school child; a better standard of child care and information as to the nature and possibilities of Nursery School education was rapidly spreading, and Nursery Schools were regarded as "news" by the London and provincial press.

The Nursery School Association of Great Britain had been working since 1923 to disseminate information about Nursery School education and to bring about a strong public demand that Nursery Schools should take their place as the foundation of the national system of health and education. Its work and influence had steadily increased during the past ten years, and in the past two years, thanks to generous help by the Carnegie Trust, had been able to increase its propaganda through a number of channels. One of the most important of these was the formation of branches of the Association throughout the country, since, although each Nursery School must be sanctioned by the Board of Education in London, the initiative in every case must come from the Local Education Authority in each area, so that the battle for Nursery Schools had to be fought over and over again and won bit by bit in each town.

The Association had also conducted an intensive campaign for Nursery Schools in connection with the Slum Clearance and Re-housing schemes which were being carried out all over the country. The campaign had included deputations to the Central Authority; appeals to Local Education and Housing Authorities; co-operation with the National Town Planning Association and the Workers' Educational Association; the production of films and pamphlets; conferences; a press campaign led off by the Archbishop of York; and much local work by the branches. This work was still in progress, and no effort would be relaxed until the Nursery School was actually the foundation of the national system of education.

Sweden

Miss Anna Holmberg (Froebel Institute of Sweden) said that in many respects Sweden was a happy country, and

comparatively good provision was made for the right treatment of babies and school children ; but pre-school education was still too dependent upon private initiative. The Swedish Froebel Association, the only existing centre for such work, had arranged lectures and courses in various parts of the country, not only for the further education of their members but also to arouse interest in and understanding of the movement among the general public.

There were just over one hundred childgardens distributed in twenty-eight towns and three industrial boroughs. In twelve of those towns some of the childgardens received local support, the others were private. During the coming autumn the council schools of Gothenburg would begin two experimental childgardens. During the past few years two hospitals had employed Froebel trained assistants.

In the Swedish childgardens the children did not usually stay more than three hours a day. They were received from the age of four years upwards to seven years of age, and as Swedish children did not begin school before they were seven, childgardens were especially necessary. The children were allowed to express themselves freely through creative play and were able to accumulate impressions by their experiences in fields, woods and streets. Miss Holmberg described the children's work with Froebel building blocks after visiting the harbour. After the first visit many children made boats alone or in groups of two and three. Every day the boats were better and after a second visit there were many improvements. They brought from their homes what they needed, and made a lot of things in wood, paper and clay, and at last the whole group made quays, storehouses, cranes and boats from different lands (banana and coal steamers). Periodical meetings with the parents are arranged and the mutual relationship between mothers and teachers has proved stimulating and useful for the mothers as well as for the teachers.

India

Mrs. Anasuya Pearce (Gwalior, India) said that the population of India was so vast and increasing so rapidly that the number of children who ought to be in the primary schools alone was over fifty millions. At present only one-fourth of those were in the primary schools, so that it could be understood that it was likely to be some time before the

problem of pre-school education was tackled properly or on a large scale. In the meantime, those who were convinced of the importance of the care of children during their first five years were carrying on an uphill task by their own efforts. There was one bright spot : if the amount of work being done in that field was infinitesimal in comparison with the size of the field, the actual work was of a very high standard and exerted an influence on public opinion out of all proportion to its size. Mrs. Pearce then described the beginnings of the training of pre-school teachers, and of schools for children of pre-school age in various parts of India ; and spoke of the many difficulties with which they were faced.

One of the difficulties at present was that the necessary materials were costly, for such a poor country as India, and in consequence of this, most of the private schools had to charge fees which the ordinary people, who needed the schools most, could not afford to pay. It could not be said, at present, that the movement had done more than touch the fringe of the problem of meeting the needs of the masses.

The immense size of the country also had its effect in many ways, among others because it had made it difficult for workers in the pre-school field to keep in touch with each other and to feel the encouragement which knowledge of each other's work would bring. It was hoped that one result of the Conference would be that the pre-school workers in India would be assisted by the Pre-School Section to keep more in touch with each other.

Another difficulty was that of getting teachers trained for this most difficult of all educational work. India was a very poor country, and it was possible for only a very fortunate few to come all the way to the West to get training.

In conclusion Mrs. Pearce said, " The only way in which we can hope to deal with the immense problems that face us is by the training of earnest workers, who in their turn will train others. In this we need all the help that you, who have the knowledge, can give us. And India has never been an ungrateful country. Perhaps she will return your gifts, multiplied, some day."

Post-War Hungary

Mr. Edward Fuller (Save the Children Fund) : " Hungary, before the World War, possessed many well-developed social institutions among which crèches and

kindergartens—such were the common terms in those days—were not inconspicuous. Kindergartens had indeed been introduced so long ago as 1841 under the influence of the Countess Theresa Brunswick, a pioneer of work for the welfare of children. The losses and privations of the war, the territorial delimitations of the peace, and a succeeding period of economic difficulty which has continued down to the present day have been inimical to the extension of social work, but nevertheless—notably in the field of pre-school education—Hungary has made an advance not unworthy of her cultural traditions.

As an administrator of the emergency relief—food and clothing—distributed by the British Save the Children Fund in Budapest immediately after the war, Miss Rose Vajkai had been brought into close contact with the problems of poverty in their most desperate phases. She was quick to realise that the type of pre-school education demanded by the new conditions was complete, day-long care of the child. His nursery life must be as similar as possible to the home life which he was denied by adverse economic conditions. It was with this principle in mind that she began to establish nurseries for the poorest children in Budapest, under the ægis of the Save the Children International Union, whose delegate in Hungary she had become.

These day-nursery schools seek to reflect normal conditions of home life. They take charge of children for the greater part of the day (from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m.), they supply what is lacking in family life, they foster physical and moral development, and through the children they reach the parents, helping and encouraging them to rebuild their shattered homes, strengthening the loosened ties between parents and children and re-awakening the sense of parental responsibility.

When you enter one of these day-nursery schools of the Save the Children International Union in Hungary, the first thing that strikes you is the extraordinary simplicity. There is a principle behind this spartan simplicity. The day-nursery school, in Miss Vajkai's perspicacious judgment, must represent the normal grade of life on the family homes of the children through the highest level possible in their circumstances.

The same principle applies to educational aspects of the work. The highest and most modern educational ideals must inform the curriculum, but it must never be forgotten that the children have to come down to earth when they

return home and their urge towards self-expression will have to find an outlet in the midst of the domestic activities of their elders.

Not long since Miss Vajkai was invited to organise similar institutions in towns and villages throughout the county of Pest adjacent to the city of Budapest. The county government imposed on the communes the obligation of providing the buildings, the cost of adaptation was met by a grant from the Ministry of the Interior, the furnishing was provided for through the Hungarian Red Cross, and the Ministry of Public Instruction contributes one-half the teachers' salaries and the county government the other half. The cost of food is provided from the poor tax, and since persons in receipt of poor relief are compelled to do a certain amount of work as a partial return, one day of this work per month is earmarked for the benefit of the day-nursery schools."

Australia

Mrs. Barbara Burton, who brought greetings from the Nursery School Association of Victoria, said that the Kindergarten Union provided for the educational needs of children from three to five years in some twenty-eight kindergartens, but following a two years' study of work and methods in Europe and America by Miss Gutteridge, Principal of the Kindergarten Training College, Victoria, it was decided to open demonstration nursery schools for children from the age of eighteen months. A beginning was made by converting the roof of a kindergarten into a demonstration nursery school, where the Nursery School Committee undertook to carry on the work for one year, training at the same time people who had already a kindergarten diploma. At the end of a year the local Kindergarten Committee was to take charge, leaving the Demonstration Nursery School Committee free to pursue its activities elsewhere.

In this way demonstrations had been carried out in kindergartens, a foundling home, and a crèche.

The latest extension of the work was the formation of a Guidance Nursery in connection with Psychiatric Clinic, Outpatients Department, Children's Hospital, Melbourne (which was largely possible owing to the generosity of the Carnegie Trust), where work somewhat similar to a Child Guidance Clinic was carried on with children up to the age of seven years.

Like most other countries, Australia had not been free from economic troubles, and in such times it seemed that grants for education were the first to go. So much of the work of the Nursery School Committee had been curtailed for lack of funds, for with the exception of several generous donations the work was carried on by public subscription. But the struggle for nursery school work and methods went on, and it could be claimed that after five years' labour they had at least convinced a few people of the need of more than just physical care for the young child and they looked forward to the day when nursery schools would be available for all children in all parts of Australia.

New Zealand

Mrs. N. A. R. Barrer, said that although the educational standard in New Zealand was high (there was free primary and secondary education for all), the most important phase of child life, the pre-school period, received the least help from the Government.

At present pre-school needs were met by the Free Kindergarten Association, who catered for the children of the five larger centres. There were thirty-two schools in New Zealand, and the number of children on the roll in 1933 was 1,859, compared with 1,804 in 1932. The children attended from 9 a.m. to 12 noon on five days a week. There were long waiting lists, finance and staffing being insufficient to provide for all applicants. Until 1933 the Government gave a subsidy of £4 per child, but under the Finance Act of 1932 the age for school entry had been raised to six and the subsidy had been withdrawn, although the Education Department still supplied medical supervision. The New Zealand Free Kindergarten Association controlled the general policy of the Kindergartens, but each town had its own local council, which paid the teachers' salaries, and each centre had its principal who was in charge of students in training and supervised the educational policy of the schools.

The children in the kindergartens were mainly Anglo-Saxon, but there were a few Maoris, Chinese and Hindus, but there were no distinctions of class or colour. Children were the true internationalists without consciousness of class or creed or race. Why then should adults graft their prejudices and intolerances upon so beautiful a friendliness?

Scotland

Miss Agnes Muir (E.I.S.): "In 1934 there were in Scotland nineteen nursery schools in all (one in Aberdeen, one in Dundee, ten in Edinburgh and seven in Glasgow).

Since then two 'toddlers' play-rooms have blossomed into nursery schools, and an anonymous donor has gifted money to establish one in a new housing area. In Dundee another has been built.

The Town Council of Edinburgh has increased its grant to each nursery school but no new nursery schools have been provided by public authorities.

In addition to nursery schools there are many 'toddlers' playrooms and playgrounds in Scotland—Edinburgh has sixteen organised by the 'Voluntary Health Workers Association.' The conditions and position of playrooms vary in each district. In some the 'free play' is stressed; in some there is a more strict adherence to a regular programme; in one or two of the newer ones there is a distinct approach towards nursery school ideals. The average cost of running a playroom is £60 to £70.

Whilst one is full of admiration for the enthusiasm of the voluntary committees which add to the number of nursery schools in Scotland, one is faced with the question as to whether or not any such increase does not actually prevent or delay the establishment of more nursery schools by public authorities. The pioneer nursery schools showed the way and proved conclusively the benefits of nursery schools to the community. Public bodies have been lamentably slow in following up these pioneer efforts and seem to be salving their civic consciences by giving grants in aid instead of going ahead to supply this great need in our educational system.

No voluntary effort can ever hope to do more than touch the fringe of the great problem of providing for the needs of the pre-school child owing to the vast number of children in the age group two to five years. It may be that the cost of the few nursery schools already provided by public authorities has been so high that it has discouraged further advance.

These costs are unnecessarily high and are so because each nursery school is too small. With larger nursery schools the cost per child could be much reduced."



A DELEGATION FROM INDIA

Ireland

Miss Molly McNeill said that the nursery school movement in Ireland was in its infancy and facing all the difficulties that many other countries had left behind.

For years Irish thought and energy had been directed into other channels. Generations of political strife had culminated in 1922 in the division of the country into two completely separate units—the Irish Free State and Northern Ireland. Since then they had been setting their houses in order and public opinion on both sides of the border was becoming concerned with pressing problems of which the pre-school child was one. It was being approached, however, entirely from the point of view of the slums and poverty; from a purely educational standpoint it was not yet being considered at all.

In Northern Ireland the Education Act of 1923 contained the same clauses relating to nursery schools as are in the English Act, although no education authority had yet availed itself of the powers contained therein. The only nursery school in Northern Ireland was in Belfast, opened in 1928 by the Post Students Association of a Belfast school. This one example had undoubtedly influenced public opinion in the city. Another post students association was contemplating opening a nursery school and a scheme had for some time been under consideration in the city of Armagh.

In the Free State the situation was somewhat less advanced. In Dublin no nursery school had so far materialised, but definite steps had been taken by private individuals and a promise of a site had been secured from the Board of Health.

Wales

Miss Cecil Denbury gave a brief account of the growth of public interest in the Nursery School Movement in Wales and spoke of the dark cloud of industrial depression which overshadowed them and had hitherto prevented any tangible result from the enthusiastic propaganda work carried out by the South Wales branch of the Nursery School Association.

Two emergency open-air nurseries, built by unemployed men on what had been rubbish heaps, had been opened and were doing splendid work which was already bearing fruit in the improved health and habits of the children and

in the brightening of their surroundings. The Welsh education authorities were now moving and three new nursery schools would shortly be established.

Palestine

Mrs. Matia Taubenhau (Teachers' Association of Jerusalem), gave a brief description of the kindergarten movement in Palestine.

Other Countries

Miss Grace Owen read extracts from a report on the pre-school movement in Latin-America, kindly furnished by Miss Heliose Brainerd (Chief Division of Intellectual Co-operation of the Pan-American Union, Washington), and from reports furnished by correspondents in China, Canada, San Salvador, Nicaragua, Venezuela and Fife.

Although there were still parts of the world from which no information had been received, it was evident that there was world-wide awakening to the need for securing the best environment for the future development of the whole personality of the children of the community.

Resolution

After questions and general discussion, the following resolution was carried unanimously and referred to the business meeting for approval:

"That, having regard to the great and far-reaching importance of education in the early days of childhood, the education of all children of pre-school and kindergarten age should be the duty and responsibility of the Education Authority in every country."

Business Meeting

TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST, 11.30 A.M.

Chairman : MISS G. OWEN.

The following report on the work of the past biennium was presented.

Correspondents

A definite attempt has been made to appoint correspondents in various countries. This attempt has met with some success and correspondents have now been secured in twenty-two countries, most of which have contributed to the conference, personally or in writing, reports which indicate that interest in the pre-school and kindergarten movement is growing throughout the world and that in most of the countries represented a beginning has been made towards the provision of nursery school facilities for children below the normal age of school entrance. In response to numerous requests these reports will shortly be published.

International Books

Books for nursery school children designed to give vivid pictures of child life in the countries indicated have been submitted (China, Germany, Great Britain, Hawaii, India, Japan and the United States of America) and efforts are being made to secure publication. Efforts have also been made with a view to making inexpensive books on other lands available through the ten-cent stores in America, with the result that numerous publications of the kind have been produced.

Conference Arrangements

The Nursery School Association of Great Britain amalgamated its summer conference with that of the Pre-School Section of the World Federation of Educational Associations and has been most helpful in planning the programme and making all the local arrangements. Miss Grace Owen and Mrs. Phœbe Cusden have been especially interested in the conference and have given endlessly of time and energy.

Exchange of Teachers

Through the co-operation of the American Association of University Women, the English Speaking Union and the Nursery School Association of Great Britain, the first exchange between American and English nursery school teachers had been effected and Miss Alida Shinn, of Mills College, California (Chairman of the Pre-School Section) will spend the next year at the Columbia Market Nursery School (under the London County Council Education Authority), while Miss Clarissa Hallowell will go to Mills College for the same period.

It is hoped to develop this work as one of the means of securing international co-operation and the pooling of knowledge and experience.

Future Plans

These include arrangements for ensuring continuity of work between conferences ; the initiation of research ; the publication of reports ; the advancement of the movement throughout the world, and a study of the psychological effect on children of war toys and plays, a report upon which it is hoped to present at the next conference.

The report was received and adopted.

Organisation

A letter from the directors containing recommendations regarding methods of work and organisation of Sections was discussed and it was *resolved* that the recommendations be adopted.

Arising from a discussion on ways and means of carrying on the work of the Section, it was *resolved* that a sub-committee be appointed to consider the question of finance and to report back to the Section. The following were appointed to the sub-committee : The Officers, Mrs. Phœbe Cusden, Miss Flynn, Mr. G. H. Goldsbrough and Miss Leeper.

Election of Officers

Miss Grace Owen (Great Britain) was unanimously elected Chairman of the Section for the ensuing biennium ; Miss Mary Leeper (U.S.A.) Secretary ; and Miss Alida Shinn (U.S.A.) Vice-Chairman.

Resolutions

The following resolution which was passed by the Pre-School Section at its open session on Tuesday, 13th August, was formally adopted for submission to the Assembly :

“ That, having regard to the great and far-reaching importance of education in the early days of childhood, the education of all young children of pre-school and kindergarten age should be the duty and responsibility of the Education Authority in every country.”

At the resumed business meeting of the Section on 15th August, the following resolutions, recommended by the sub-committee appointed to consider the financial position

of the Section, were *unanimously adopted* for transmission to the Directorate :

1. "That it be a recommendation from the Pre-School Section to the Directorate of the Federation that a proportion of the affiliation fees received from any association be allocated to the section in which that association is most closely interested ; such proportion of the fees to be used by the section for its necessary incidental expenscs."

2. "Until the Federation is in a position to finance the work of the sections, they be permitted to solicit small grants from national organisations specially interested in their respective work, such grants to be made through the central organisation of the Federation and transmitted to the appropriate section."



[Photo taken (Oxford)]

MERTON COLLEGE

Showing passage from the Mob Quad, to the Front Quadrangle and Bridge from Hall to Sacristy

RURAL LIFE AND RURAL EDUCATION SECTION

Chairman : W. LLOYD PIERCE (Executive, N.U.T. ; Llanfair Council School, Welshpool).

Secretary : W. P. WARD (Past President, Irish National Teachers' Organisation, Ballinasloe, Ireland).

Place of Meeting : St. Michael's Hall.

FIRST SESSION, TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST,
10.0 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

The Chairman's Address

“ The importance of the meetings of this Section cannot be denied. Confusion of terms, misunderstanding of the functions of Education and a growing unwillingness to separate the interests of rural and urban dwellers ; all these may have occasioned questions. They may have suggested the title of the first paper we are to consider — ‘ Rural Education—Does it Exist ? ’ None present here this morning, however, will question the need for fuller consideration to be given both to the conditions of rural life and provision of greater facilities for rural education.

Our Civilisation rests at bottom on the wholesomeness, the attractiveness, and the completeness, as well as the prosperity of life in the country. Upon the development of country life rests ultimately our ability to feed and clothe the hungry nations, to supply the city with fresh blood, clean bodies and clear brains, that can endure the terrific strain of modern life. We need the development of men in the open country, who will be in the future, as in the past, the stay and strength of the Nation.

That statement of President Roosevelt in his Special Message of 1909 is true not only of that time but of this ; not only of America but of every other civilised country. By common consent agriculture is the economic foundation of civilisation. In recent years there has been a greater

recognition of the fact that agriculture must occupy a more important place in the life of every community. The increase of the world's population itself has focused attention on the part that agriculture must play. How it is to satisfy these increasing demands is one of the major problems of the world's statesmen. In the nineteenth century it was generally accepted that agriculture could satisfy the demands because there was the possibility of extending the areas. That is now no longer accepted for the agricultural area of the world is seen to be strictly limited, and there is a prospect that shortly the whole of it will be occupied. Another method, therefore, has to be sought. In recent years it has been hoped that agricultural production would be indefinitely increased by the application of scientific methods. It becomes obvious, therefore, that the great problem of productivity resolves itself into the problem of rural personnel. You cannot have good labour, resourceful planning of work, scientific application of knowledge and the necessary enterprise without heart being thrown into it. You cannot have heart thrown into it except you have a temper tuned both to occupation and surroundings, finding pleasure in both and contentment in moving within them. The most noticeable feature of the present condition is that in many countries the rural population unfortunately lacks such a congenial temper. In our own country we appear foolishly so to have mismanaged things as to turn 'Merrie England' into 'Gloomy England,' sparsely peopled by those who lack culture and to a large extent by those deficient in enterprise. This aspect cannot be regarded lightly, and it is well to consider to what the change is due. The small man in olden time was in a position of independence, self-reliance and freedom, and was as active and as alive in his own as in the public affairs of his locality as is the Swiss *bauer*, who is to-day the complete citizen with a voice in things and no need to cringe before anyone.

But in this country there is a social classification, and that accounts for much of the disharmony, glumness and want of mutual confidence and happy feeling which those familiar with the English country-side have observed. Unfortunately there has been taken away from the villagers much that makes life self-respecting in the country. It is true that he has the vote, but that is of less account since he has lost that independence that comes from the possession of land for the cultivation of which he is responsible.

to overcome not only the inertia, but also the tendency to regard anything connected with rural life as being of an inferior character.

A most important step in this direction will be taken when a true conception of what is meant by rural education is more commonly accepted. Much ambiguity attaches to the expression ; on the one hand it has been used to connote the idea of a specific training for rural occupations ; on the other it has been used to cover a general education in a rural environment. It would be well, therefore, to state definitely that rural education in my opinion should serve primarily not the needs of rural areas, but the needs of the dwellers in those areas. These two aspects are not, of course, mutually exclusive ; but it is of importance to know where the emphasis has to be placed, and I am firmly convinced that it should be on the needs of the human beings.

I have said so much lest what follows should be misunderstood.

As far as my own country is concerned, and from what I have heard and have read, it is equally true of some other countries, I am of the definite opinion that the work and especially the curriculum of rural schools has suffered from too close an approximation to that of urban schools.

It cannot be too strongly emphasised that rural education should be based upon the environment of the child ; only so can the work of the curriculum be humanised. The school must identify itself with the country-side in which it has its foundation. Its courses in contact with rural conditions must be developed. Full use must be made of the wealth of the material which lies about the child and in the environment of the school. The approach, therefore, must be different ; and if advantage is taken of the excellent opportunities which nature provides and rural conditions present, the child can be given a real education, not inferior to, but even wider than that which is provided for his urban colleague.

But if this is to be done, greater attention must be given to the supply and to the qualifications of the teachers. Staffing has always been a great difficulty in rural schools. This is in some measure due to the small size of the unit of organisation. In order to bring down staffing costs in this country, as in others, local education authorities have had recourse to the services of less qualified teachers and even to the teacher without qualification. There are nearly

eight hundred schools where *no* certificated teacher is employed, even the head being uncertificated. Approaches are continuously being made to the English Board of Education to stop the supply of uncertificated teachers and to ensure that every school shall have a certificated head teacher.

The present system of staffing rural schools has necessarily meant that teachers should be responsible for wide ranges of age and ability. Under the compulsion of necessity some such teachers have developed a technique which has resulted in a great measure of success. Rural teachers had used the Dalton Plan long before it had been named and become fashionable as a new discovery. But while the skill and devotion of the teacher can accomplish much, they cannot completely overcome all the disadvantages of the rural child and the rural school. One consequence of this has been the advocacy of what in this country is called *reorganisation* and in America *consolidation*. Expressed briefly, reorganisation means that those responsible for English educational administration have come to the conclusion that since it is impossible to bring the teachers and equipment necessary for adequate post-primary education to the pupils in the village school, the pupils must be taken to the teachers and the equipment. These will naturally be provided in some centrally situated school to which all the senior pupils will be drafted from a series of neighbouring contributory schools. These changes involve a reconsideration of the place of the individual school in the system. Whereas in the past the school has been the unit and has attempted to provide all the education necessary between the ages of five and fourteen, in future the educational unit will be the area in which all the schools will be effectively and organically linked together, each performing its proper function so that a properly co-ordinated system is evolved.

The advantages claimed for this reorganisation are :

- (1) Pupils can be better classified and graded according to individual capacity and attainments.
- (2) They can have the advantage of better buildings, more adequately heated and ventilated and supplied on a liberal scale with appropriate apparatus.
- (3) The system secures a broader companionship for village children, affords opportunities for developing more

specialised study in such subjects as music, art, and literature, and thereby makes possible a larger measure of culture.

(4) It is possible to employ fully trained and qualified staffs so that, with specialist teaching, interest and enthusiasm are aroused.

(5) Teachers may be more easily induced to accept service in such schools.

(6) The need for differentiation in the curriculum for older scholars can only be met adequately where the numbers are sufficiently large to make possible the provision of alternative courses based on the recognition of the needs of children of varying types. Generally speaking, therefore, the senior school in rural areas will be of the non-selective type, and will provide a large variety of courses.

(7) The pupils are supplied with a broader mental horizon than is possible in the small village school, and the equalisation of educational opportunity for town and country children results in a desire to continue longer in attendance at school, and to extend and improve knowledge when school days are over.

(8) The separation of the older pupils makes possible a larger measure of freedom, and provides that opportunity for self-government and self-discipline which cannot fail to produce independent, self-reliant young citizens.

These results are being carefully watched. Meanwhile it can be said of reorganisation in England and Wales as Finney says of the consolidated movement in the United States: 'It is one of the most significant and important trends in modern life.'

In conclusion I would briefly refer to the question of the curriculum of the newly re-organised senior schools. While the environment must continue to exert its influence, the use of these schools definitely to give a narrow vocational training would be a mistake, indeed, such training might defeat its own purpose. Education must train the whole man if it is to produce the truly successful man in any walk of life. It must prepare for the whole of life as well as the working life of the citizen. It must, therefore, be broad in its sweep, inclusive rather than exclusive. No better example of what can be done in this direction can be quoted than that which has been given in the Danish Folk High Schools which owed their origin to Bishop

Grundtvig. They have revolutionised the social life of Denmark, and have been the means of giving to Danish farmers a world-wide reputation. Yet the education Bishop Grundtvik advocated was not the so-called education of the technical sort. Instead he wished the young Danish peasants to be taught the virile folk songs and hero ballads of their native land, the old Norse sagas, and the very best in recent Danish literature. He emphasised what he called statistics, which we should call sociology, economics, constitutional law, and political administration. And, above all, he believed in history. But these subjects were not to be taught in a mere bookish way; instead they were to be correlated with the vital problems of Danish life. In short, the peasants, through their Folk High Schools, were to participate in the richest thought-life of the age. Nor did Grundtvik fail to see that the spirit of the teacher—the teacher's unfeigned and eager love of learning—was to be the vital spark.

And such is the programme and spirit that the visitor will actually find in the Folk High Schools scattered all over Denmark to-day. There is one exception: practical training of a technical sort is also given. But it is definitely subordinated to the pursuit of liberal learning, and that was what Grundtvik really desired. It was liberal education to which the great Bishop pinned his faith. In these schools one hears lectures on Hegel and the other philosophers, on Goethe and the other poets, on Beethoven and the other musicians, and on all the great scientific, sociological, and international problems of to-day. In the spirit of the school one feels a sincere and eager love for the higher learning. And these high schools return their students to the plough, happy and contented.

The effects upon Danish agriculture and rural life are unmistakable. Nowhere in the world is farming conducted on so thoroughly scientific a basis as in Denmark, and this fact is, of course, the foundation of Danish prosperity. These schools are the intellectual power houses for the great co-operative societies which have solved the problem of marketing, and hence of prosperity.

That offers a wonderful illustration of what rural education can accomplish. The need for improvement is recognised, the possibilities are manifest. It is with the hope that our discussions may make its probability greater and its attainment more rapid that I welcome you to this Section of this great Conference."

Rural Education—Does it Exist?

Sir Daniel Hall (John Innes Horticultural Institution, London).

"It is now some forty years since 'rural bias' became a current cliché in educational circles and 'nature study' was offered to the teachers of country schools as a means of making boys and girls fit to enter into the service of farming.

The times had indeed provoked some stirring of the waters. Agriculture in 1894-95 was down to the very dregs of the cup of depression; prices of corn and other agricultural produce had reached their lowest level, yet trade generally was so prosperous that farmers could obtain no relief by reducing wages. Other countries were turning to protection to maintain their rural population; England, however, was set in a Free Trade policy and repudiated with a violence we should find it difficult to understand nowadays any interference with the course of trade or state assistance for a backward industry. But the country had been induced a few years before to sanction expenditure on technical instruction, and since farmers were being adjoined by the economists of the day to counter the depression by improving their methods, it was not surprising that the elementary schools of the country should be asked to play some part in the intellectual revival of the agricultural community. Farmers themselves were wont to assert that the spread of education and the raising of the school age was spoiling the material and diverting boys from the land. The flight from the fields was already apparent; we now know that something like one-third of the rural labourer population drifted into urban industries or migrated during the last quarter of the century. It was thought that teaching with a rural bias might do something to make the country boy or girl more attached to his surroundings, more appreciative of the pure air, the cleanliness, the health and the beauty that the town dweller must forego.

I am perhaps prone to scepticism, but I stilled my own doubts as to how such teaching would work by trying it myself. The headmaster of the school in my village was good enough to allow me to give an hour's lesson three times a week to the older boys and girls from the third standard upwards. It was a very pleasant experiment, and I at any rate learned a great deal from it. I learned something of

the teacher's difficulties. The more elementary, the more general is the education you are trying to impart—in this case an inquiry into the things round about a country school, e.g. the way plants grow and animals live, the wider and more varied is the experience the teacher must draw upon. I had a background both of science and of agriculture which could not be expected of the country schoolmaster. Even in the material way I had an agricultural college at hand, from which I could draw apparatus for experiments, specimens, books and illustrations.

Nature study exacts something more than routine teaching ; in compensation how often have I seen it afford an opportunity and a vivid interest to the real teacher. As far as the children were concerned, I was satisfied that it was a sheer gain ; for the first time their school teaching began to be connected with daily life and to be concerned with something real. None the less, doubts would keep creeping in. One parent remonstrated with me because I was trying to make a gardener of his boy. He was a bright lad and the father was ambitious, intending him for the railway or the police. This was not the only case ; indeed, in another connection, I can give you similar instances to-day. The far-seeing parent does not want his son to be trained for work upon the land, of all occupations it is the worst paid. Other critics again arose who pointed out that the elementary school was no place for vocational instruction. Less than seven per cent. of the workers in Great Britain are engaged in agriculture, you ought not to design a scheme of education for the benefit of so small a fraction of the community. Even in the most wholly agricultural parish not half of the boys passing through the school will go on the land ; what right then is there to demand a rural bias in the curriculum of the school ?

Well, I accept the argument ; I don't want rural bias if I can get education. So let us start afresh from the basis that the school is concerned only with education. Now my contention is that one of the fundamentals essential to the education of every boy and girl, whether in Shoreditch or Slocombe in the Wilderness, whether the boy is going on to Eton or the Polytechnic, is a systematic course of instruction in general science from the earliest age. I don't want chemistry or physics or botany or zoology as such, no sciences but science, some insight into the whole scheme of things that enter into everyday experience. I want the child to have some conception of why the sun moves across

the sky, what the clouds are and what makes the wind that drives them, how our fires burn and steam engines produce electricity, how a plant grows, what are the purposes of the bodily functions of animals, of whom a human being is one. I want to catch something of the primitive curiosities, as when the shepherds of the Asian steppe first named the constellations. I look upon this general science as the broad factual basis of everyday life, indispensable as knowledge and at the same time culturally valuable as an introduction to a rational quantitative consideration of human affairs instead of the emotional approach they generally receive. It is no subject to be added to an already heavy school curriculum; it is one of *the* subjects, demanding several hours a week from eleven to fourteen. There is no occasion to go into detail, but under proper organisation it can be made to fit with other school activities like geography and arithmetic, even with history and English composition.

It is not outside the capacity of the elementary school, though more properly it belongs to the central schools, into which it is now becoming the practice to gather the older children from a wide rural area.

To come back now to our original question of 'rural bias,' if we can have this general science as a necessary element in the education of everyone we need no 'rural bias.' Whatever view we may take of the need for a more highly instructed body of labourers, and I at least hold that the future of agriculture in England, if it is to be anything more than a means of out-relief, depends upon highly skilled craftsmanship under good technical direction, the one thing we can do in the elementary school is to lay a basis of general intelligence. Vocational instruction must *come later when the vocation has been chosen, but whether* it is going to be for one man craft training as a poultry keeper or a tractor driver, or for another man farm institute training to become a technical adviser, the fundamental basis of general science is equally necessary. If it existed, much of the spade work that now has to be done in secondary school or institute or college could be saved. One other consideration is germane, the real teacher of general science will always be drawing his illustration from materials and operations with which his pupils are familiar. Here the 'rural bias' comes in, for the teacher in a country school, not as vocational training but as the natural utilisation by the teachers of the materials to his hand.

A word now as to the difficulties. I have talked about

this general science to many headmasters, for the subject is just as essential for the secondary and public schools as for the elementary schools, and their objections are formidable. It does not appear to fit in to any of the examination categories. The preparatory schools are confined within the limits set by the scholarship examinations of the public schools, just as the latter are confined within the limits set by the matriculation and scholarship examinations of the universities. The only opinion held in common by each of the three groups concerned is that it is for the other group to move first. Doubtless the examination difficulty could be removed, but unfortunately 'science' as a method is not yet accepted either by the academic world or by parents at large, however much particular sciences are recognised as a means of earning a living. The difficulty of finding teachers is even more immediate. Any headmaster will tell you that he can secure a young graduate to teach chemistry or physics, though a botanist or a zoologist is rarer. But the man who knows something of all these sciences and a few more besides does not offer in the scholastic world, he would be afraid to draw down upon himself the suspicion of a shallow sciolism. So what with the Laodicean attitude of headmasters and education authorities and the dearth of possible exponents, I may be seeming to preach a barren doctrine. Still, having once been a schoolmaster and so having acquired the habit of telling people what is right, I am going to continue preaching. Little by little the word permeates, some of the seed germinates, I at least relieve myself.

But do not let me give the impression that I consider that this training in general science constitutes the whole of education. Since men and women have to carry on their intercourse by speaking and writing, the basis of all education has to be literary. Essential as is the factual scientific training, it must be regarded as secondary to the vicarious experience which the young mind gains from contacts with literature and history. Secondary perhaps but none the less necessary.

And from another point of view—the way mind and body re-act upon one another, I am satisfied from experience that the education of the whole man also demands some hand and eye training. With a very large section of the community, whatever the social grade, it is craftsmanship that excites the mind and may provide the stimulus to intellectual effort. Nearly three hundred years ago Hooke

wrote : 'The true philosophy . . . is to begin with hands and eyes, and to proceed on through the memory, to be continued through the reason ; nor is it to stop there, but to *come about* to the hands and eyes again, and so, by a *continual passage* round from one faculty to another, it is to be maintained in life and strength.' "

Educational Work in the Rural Districts in Sweden

Miss Jenny Wahlman (Sveriges Allmänna, Folkskollärärförening)

"As early as the first part of the seventeenth century, Swedish legislators thought of passing a law that would oblige every Swedish child that was at least seven years old to learn to read, to write and to do sums. But it was only by the Ecclesiastical Law of 1686 that the foundations were laid to a universal education in Sweden. This law imposed upon the rector or the chanter the task of teaching the children of the parish 'how to read in a book.'

Of course it was no easy thing to carry out such a law in the parishes of Sweden, enormously vast at that time and with a very sparse population. Clergymen, chanters and mothers did all they could to teach the children to 'spell and read' and to give them some notions of writing. Before the middle of the nineteenth century there were very few school-houses ; they had generally been built by some squire, enthusiast for the education of the people, who had also procured a schoolmaster. But as a rule things were done in the following way : some person willing to teach children—perhaps an old soldier who hardly knew how to read, or an old woman who knew just as much—went from farm to farm, collected the children of the house and those of the immediate neighbourhood and gave them a few lessons, while spinning-wheels turned, looms rattled and servants chattered all round them. However, the interest in a universal school for the whole people grew steadily, and parish after parish tried to set up a sort of school and to make the children go there more or less regularly. Let me tell you a story to illustrate what I have said :

In the first part of the nineteenth century there lived in Sweden a peasant, who was also a member of Parliament,

to whom we have given the name of 'the Peasant of Light.' Once, when some of his friends—members of Parliament like himself—wanted to give a banquet in his honour, he said: 'Instead of eating and drinking with me, I wish every one of you to give me a small contribution, to enable me to set up a school in my parish.'

In 1842 the Swedish Parliament—whose fifth centenary has been celebrated this year—was ready to confirm by law what 'the Peasant of Light' had dreamt of. For that year, 1842, a law was passed by which every parish was obliged to set up at least one elementary school, and all parents had to send their children there.

To-day the elementary school is realised in all parts of the country. It is not only represented by a few written lines, it is a reality that every Swedish child comes into contact with, that is, if its parents have not taken other dispositions for its education.

After this necessary introduction I pass on to my subject, *the Educational Work in the Rural Districts in Sweden*. It is natural that the *elementary school* in the rural districts should be treated first. One could say that the elementary school in the country, and everything that refers to it, shows the groundwork of the Swedish elementary school; in the towns the organisation of this school has been changed, but only in so far that it has been enlarged and specialised; some beautiful ornaments have been added to the groundwork.

The numbers I am going to give you in the following are from 1930; those of the latest years are in many cases lower, owing to the frightful decrease of the birth-rate. The number of rural school districts is 2,349. The number of forms (school divisions), each with its teacher, is 21,555 (in the towns 6,194). The total number of pupils attending the rural elementary schools amounts to 501,433 (in the towns 171,390). The average number of pupils (taught in each form simultaneously by every teacher) is 23.3 (27.7). In the country, however, this number varies from about five to forty. About seventy per cent. of the teaching staff are women.

The school age begins in Sweden with the calendar year during which the child reaches the age of seven, and, as a rule, the school age ceases at the age of fourteen. The elementary school has six classes, or (in some places) seven classes. The seventh school year is not yet compulsory, but it will probably be so in a year or two. Generally the school is divided in two parts, the so-called infant school,

lasting two years, and the elementary school, in a strict sense, lasting four or five years.

I hope my listeners can imagine that we have got a map of Sweden here, that you can see the country before you, very extended in length: the distance from the extreme north to the extreme south is 1,547 kilometers. Owing to this fact the different parts of the country are very different with regard to climate and vegetation. There are fertile plains as well as deep forests and desolate mountains, and of course the population is different, too. This variety of natural conditions necessitates a great variety in the organisation of the elementary school. I will not speak to-day of the ambulatory schools for the nomadic tribes, where the young Laplanders receive their instruction. These schools are not more than about three hundred with thirty teachers, and there are special regulations for them. I have the intention to speak only of the most common types of elementary schools that are to be found in our rural districts. Certain small variations that have showed themselves to be necessary in certain parts of the country will not here be mentioned.

The type A, the type we generally find in the towns and town-like localities in the country, has for every form (standard) a special teacher, by whom the form (composed of children of the same age) is instructed separately every week-day of the school year.

The type B is characterised by the fact that two, three or four forms (standards) make a unity and are instructed together, every week-day of the school year.

In the schools of *the type C*, the children go to school during half the school year only, either every second day or for some time running (in order to have a long period of *unbroken liberty*). *The standards form at least two sections*, having both the same teacher.

The characteristic of *the type D* is that all the forms (standards) are instructed at the same time by an infant school teacher. The instruction lasts all the school year or half the school year only.

The types A and B are the most common ones, the other two are exceptions. There are also ambulatory schools, where the teacher moves from one place to another, but they exist only in desert regions. The types A and B are becoming more and more frequent. Public grants are given for the purpose of constructing school-homes, where the children from certain districts live during their school time; in some places conveyances are provided that take the children

to school, and sometimes they are boarded out at the expense of the State, and so they can go to school without interruption all the school year at a place where the schools have been concentrated. So the schools of the exceptional types, C and D, begin to disappear. Still I must say that, however great an advantage it may be for the children to be able to attend school all the school year in nice school houses, the disparition of the little lonely schools in the vast, desolate regions is a *disadvantage*, as they were in fact cultural centres out there.

In the rural elementary schools the same obligatory subjects are taught as in the elementary school in general, that is, in the three lowest forms, Christianity, Swedish, mathematics ; the knowledge of the native place and practical exercises connected therewith, singing, gymnastics, sports and games ; in the upper classes we also find geography, science, history and drawing. Gardening, manual training ('slöjd') and household work can also be taught. For financial reasons only a few rural schools give instruction in household work, but 'slöjd' for boys and girls is almost always taught. The plan of instruction of the year 1919 gives directions concerning the aims of the instruction and the methods to be used. Swedish teachers have great freedom in the choice of methods, and the attitude of the country schoolmasters towards new ideas about teaching can be characterised by the proverb, 'Hurry without flurry,' which corresponds rather well to Swedish life and Swedish national character.

Up to now the influence of the local authorities upon the elementary school has been very great, but by an Act of Parliament this year the State has assumed the charge of paying the teacher's basic salary and contributes to the construction of the school houses. In consequence, the State demands more influence over the school, and enforced removal of teachers from one place to another, and posts that can be demanded only by teachers from certain districts are novelties in the organisation of our elementary schools. The year 1935 is a remarkable year for it, and in the country it will probably be regretted that the influence of the local authorities has diminished.

In rural districts the local authority that has to decide about school is the school board. At every school there is one teacher called overseer or supervisor. Many school districts have a superintendent.

The State inspects the elementary schools by fifty-three

school inspectors, by an intermediary institution called the chapter (a remembrance of the time when the Church organised the school), and by a civil service department called Supervisory Board of Schools, which is a branch of the Ecclesiastical and Educational Department. This Supervisory Board, situated in Stockholm, deliberates upon all school questions and has a special section for the elementary school. Its members have generally been taken from the teaching staff of the elementary school, which has been a very great advantage.

Based on the elementary school there are superstructures organically incorporated in the school system. In the rural districts there is always a continuation school; by a royal decree of 1918 it was made compulsory for all pupils who do not receive a corresponding instruction in another school. The duration of the continuation school is from 360 up to 540 hours, and owing to local circumstances the instruction can be concentrated to a few weeks every year or it can be distributed so as to last for a longer time, up to two years. The obligatory school age ceases at the age of eighteen.

The continuation school can have a general character and give instruction chiefly in Swedish, science and 'civil instruction,' or it can have a professional character (what you call in English, central school), and give theoretical and practical instruction, for instance household work, sewing, commerce, farming, carpentry, or metal work and so on.

There are also continuation schools, set up by the free will of the local authorities, which give instruction up to four years and are of a theoretical or practical character. Such are the so-called higher elementary schools and the higher section of the elementary school. They are only found in large localities in the country.

In the rural districts the so-called municipal middle schools are of great importance. They were established in 1909, and their aim is to give a general instruction, useful for future citizens, to boys and girls that have passed through the elementary school. There is a final examination to pass. These schools are set up and maintained by the communities, but they have government grants. They are found in towns and in important localities in the country.

After the elementary school had passed its first stage and was well founded one began to discuss the possibilities of a transition from it to secondary schools. The principle of the elementary school as a general base of instruction in our country partly expressed the wish of seeing society

penetrated by democracy, partly the wish of giving to every citizen the same possibilities to get instruction, according to his natural aptitudes. This principle has not been fully realised, but in 1927 Parliament decided to change the existing school organisation completely. This decision realised to some extent the principle of the elementary school as the general base of instruction. All grammar schools or public schools must have a four-year course, to which are admitted pupils having passed through the six-year course of the elementary school. In the places where the number of pupils is sufficient higher schools are set up, which have a five-year course to which can be admitted pupils having been four years at an elementary school.

The importance this reform had for the educational problem of the rural districts is quite clear. Country children, longing for a higher education, can pass through the elementary school of their native place or just go to it for some years, before they are obliged to leave their homes in order to go to the nearest town where they can find a higher school. To be admitted to a higher school pupils from the elementary school have to pass an examination in Swedish and mathematics.

The compulsory elementary school and the different continuation schools mentioned here are not the only ones to be found in the rural districts. In Sweden, as in all Scandinavian countries, we have the sort of school for adults called High School for People. There are about sixty of them. The instruction given there is both theoretical and practical.

Of course, several agricultural schools exist in the country, higher and lower. There are also some schools of forestry, where foresters and woodmen of a lower degree are trained.

The free educational work, whose object is to raise the people intellectually, is very important in our rural districts. The work is done by private organisations and institutions. The Labours' League for Education, the National Association for the Holding of Lectures, the Central Committee of the Temperance Unions, the People's Educational Association, educational circles, provincial unions, temperance societies and other such associations do much work, the scope of which can hardly be measured but which is extremely important, as its object is to rouse the young generation in my country.

The Government gives subsidies to the free educational work.

An association among young farmers, recently started, is important in so much as it tries to join the farmers' local interests with the general cultural interests of the country.

Before finishing this brief and, unfortunately, incomplete report of the educational work in the rural districts in Sweden, I should like to ask my listeners to accompany me to the breaking-up ceremony at a Swedish elementary school somewhere in the country. Suppose it is situated on a hill with fields and meadows all round it. Far away a bluish mountain range stands out against the horizon. The school-house is red-painted with white window frames. From the flagstaff in the playground the blue and yellow flag is streaming in the wind. Blooming lilacs and fruit trees fill the garden and the children have decorated the schoolroom with fresh birch branches whose leaves have just opened. The examination, which is a part of the ceremony, is just a merry feast. The children—many of whom are fair and blue-eyed, enter the room and take their seats, followed by parents and other visitors, who sit down too. A hymn is sung, and then the examination begins, and the children give answers, right or wrong, but the teacher or 'the miss' to-day approves of everything. You would think a Swedish schoolboy or school-girl silent, timid and plain. As I am a teacher in a Swedish town I very well see the difference between country children and town children, and I am sure you would find *our* country children less developed than *yours*. But perhaps it just appears so, and the reason is perhaps a certain retiring disposition of the Swedish national character, not any lacks in the education that is given to the young people of our rural districts.

Now that, metaphorically speaking, I shut the school door after the examination has finished and send home the boys and girls for the summer holidays, which last from mid-summer to the end of August, I will make the following conclusion: in spite of its defects, the education of the young is well organised in the rural districts of Sweden; it is no brilliant thing, but it is honest and *Swedish*."

The Organisation of Rural Education in the Near East

Dr. Paul Monroe (Ex-President, W.F.E.A.)

"The problem of rural education in the Near East is very different from the similar problem in Western lands.

The problem is not that of improving the technique and the environment of the rural population engaged in agriculture, but is that of inducing a population nomadic and pastoral, rather than agricultural, in its customs and habits to settle down to a fixed habitation and to engage in agricultural rather than pastoral pursuits.

Extent of the Problem

It will be interesting and, no doubt, somewhat surprising to take a glimpse at the extent of the problem. In Iraq careful estimates indicate that fifty-six per cent. of their three or four million population yet follow a nomadic life or a semi-nomadic life. In Transjordan the percentage is even greater; in Arabia, much greater. Practically all of the population of this last area, except that which dwells in the market towns and in the holy cities, is a nomadic one. Even the semi-nomad exists here to a slight extent only. In Iran the percentage of the nomadic population is not so high as in Iraq. In Syria and Palestine the proportion of nomads is very much less, there being few pure nomads in either country, but a very considerable number of semi-nomads, particularly in Syria. One might generalise by saying that in all the vast area of the Near East fully one-half the population is nomadic or semi-nomadic, and is involved in this problem of so-called rural education.

The Nature of the Problem

To the extent of the problem we may add some consideration of its nature. The nomad is the pastoral dweller in these regions who lives much as he did in ancient times, and is perhaps better pictured in the Old Testament than in any other place in literature. The nomad has long looked upon his possession of the desert lands of the Near East as a possession not to be challenged. Even after the days of the automobile and the use of trucks to supply the larger cities of the Near East with salt from the salt beds of the desert, the Bedouin was accustomed to levy a toll of so many dollars on every auto which crossed his land. This toll was justified on the grounds of a tax for the privilege of using the land, or as a charge for protecting him against other marauders, or in lieu of any other governmental exactions. In recent years modern governments have aspired to levy all of these exactions and to put down these similar activities of the nomads as lawlessness or banditry. And modern governments are now

equipped with weapons which the nomad finds quite impossible to combat. This is particularly true of the aeroplane. The terror of the supernatural power which the new weapon wields is quite irresistible. A gas bomb which will produce nausea similar to sea-sickness in a whole village of women and children is a more forceful weapon than a regiment which might have decimated the entire man-power of the tribe. The tribe would have enjoyed the fight and considered it a part of their happy history, but the gas bomb shows a collusion with the evil powers of the world above to such an extent that it is hopeless for men to make any further effort.

The Economic Collapse of the Bedouin Culture

Added to this political and moral collapse is another just as serious ; the old livelihood of the Bedouin has been taken away. The Bedouin may have been of a more primitive stage than the agricultural stage, but he was generally engaged in one quite modern enterprise, namely, that of transportation. Scemingly pastoral life demands more transportation even than agricultural life. To this was added the universal injunction of all of the Eastern religions—for their faithful to become pilgrims. In addition, nomads were always on the go, and the semi-nomads made at least two great treks each year. The one supplementary source of income which all the nomads had was to engage in transportation. Even aside from the hauling of goods and of passengers, pilgrims or merchants, the raising of camels for the transportation market was a very general and a very lively source of income. The camel was the major source of wealth of the Bedouin, but the camel was given its chief value because of its use as a beast of transport. But the auto has destroyed the value of the camel as the beast of burden. Practically all the pilgrims, the merchants and the travellers now go by auto ; a large part of the more valuable freight goes by auto truck. Even the military largely use mechanical power instead of the camel. All at once the camel is a drug on the market, and now can be purchased for eight or ten dollars instead of many times that amount as was recently true.

These two great changes or catastrophes have happened at the same time. The Bedouin has lost his source of income from tribute from the traveller and the desert village. He has also lost his source of income from the control of transportation. Add to this one of nature's

catastrophes—a series of very dry years during the last eight or ten years through all the border line lands of the desert so that the pasturage for the ordinary flocks of sheep and goats is greatly curtailed and their flocks decimated—and the unfortunate economic condition of the nomad can be understood.

The nomad has very little reserve wealth as is true of Western culture ; he has very little reserve even in the form of food so that he has been extremely hard hit in these last few years. A simple agricultural population can dig in in the case of hard times, and is not nearly as affected by an economic depression as is the complex social structure of the West, but this is not true of the social structure of the nomad. He has not the reserve of wealth or accumulated food of highly complex civilisations. He has not the reserve resources of the simple agricultural states ; consequently now he is in dire straits. The only solution for him in order to avoid extinction is to find some other method of life.

The Agricultural Problem of the Former Nomad

The only escape from this predicament in which the nomad finds himself is to resort to agriculture. Two things are needed ; he must have water through some irrigation system so that the food crops will grow. Second, he needs to know something about the raising of crops, the use of water in irrigation, the marketing of his products, and, in fact, he has all the other needs of the agriculturist in the West. Even when he has these two needs satisfied and he settles down to agricultural life, a third need of quite as great insistence arises. He finds that he is entirely prey to disease if he adopts a settled life and attempts to live in the fixed abode such as they are able to construct. These three needs are the three outstanding needs in rural education in the Near East.

Difficulty of Teaching or of Training

It is recognised that while the first of these problems, the securing of land and of irrigation, may be a government problem, the other two problems, those of acquiring the agricultural processes and of avoiding disease, are matters of education. But the question is how can the nomad be educated ? Even in the transition stage of the semi-nomad, and to a considerable extent after he becomes settled

in a fixed habitation, he lives according to old tribal customs. These tribal customs make it impossible for the youth to leave the tribe without losing their standing as tribal members; that is, they could never be received back into the tribe. On the other hand, it is almost impossible for anyone on the outside not a Bedouin himself to be received as more than a passing guest. This seemingly makes it impossible for anyone of the tribal members to depart from his confines and to receive a Western education that might enable him to deal with these two problems and to return to the tribe, and it makes it just as difficult for any good intentioned individual or representative of the government from the outside to enter in and perform these services.

Solution of the Problem of Expert Training

The solution of the problem which was hit upon in the country where the situation is most acute, namely Iraq, and where the solution is now being tried out, is to establish a peripatetic or moving school which should be set up in connection with some tribal organisation, preferably some of the tribal organisations which are most powerful. The pupils who should attend these should be the young married couples, children of the sheikhs. If they are a young married couple they avoid the prejudice of the tribe against any young people who leave the tribe; if of the family of the sheikhs, they have the double advantage of powerful protection and of a probable return to authority where their training will find most immediate use. The major obstacle which yet remains is that which arises from the fact that the rivalries and jealousies between various members of the tribes are quite intense, so that it is difficult to get the young people from any considerable number of tribes to attend such a school. Few specialists of similar racial, if not social, background can be found to furnish the staff essential for a few of such schools. The frequent interchange of such teachers between such schools can be so arranged as to keep the teacher on the basis of a guest rather than as a permanent member of the tribe.

Content of Rural Education

The actual content of the education to be given does not differ greatly from that in the West, as the actual needs are quite similar. The essentials are to train the land

dweller to control the processes of irrigation, as the crops are limited in number and are still rather new introductions in this region. There is a great future for cotton and, perhaps, some of the minor fibre crops. The staples are wheat and barley and the other grains. Citrus fruits, and especially dates, are grown in certain regions and in great luxuriance. All of these crops need rather expert care, particularly in irrigation, but also in seed selection, soil restoration and cultivation. Like all populations new to agricultural difficulties, the Bedouins are easily discouraged and the discouragements are many; yet there is nothing new to be added beyond that for similar crops and similar procedures in the West.

The situation is quite similar when it comes to the problem of the preservation of health and good physical conditions necessitated by the demands of agricultural life. The difficulties which occur are those which arise from the transfer of a population from a free, moving, pastoral life to a sedentary agricultural life. Vermin accumulate; infections, once they occur, spread very rapidly. Most of these regions lie along or near the pilgrim travel routes, so that disease germs are spread easily and broadcast to communities; the populations themselves need to be taught how to avoid infection, especially through better sanitary care of their lives, and how to care for and minimise infections once they occur.

Achievements in Administration

It should be noted that the Iraq government has made certain specific experiments with reference to the establishment of training schools for teachers of the new type. Unfortunately external difficulties of a political and economic nature, rather than of an educational nature, arise and create difficulties sometimes of vital character though not really educational in their nature. This last April I was visiting Iraq with the purpose of seeing what progress had been made along these new lines of experiment, but unfortunately the two schools for the training of these newer types of teachers were situated in the area that had just been in political revolt, so that it was quite impossible to visit them.

The old tenure of land was really a group tenure of a large tract of land by a large tribe. When the government settles these tribes upon the land the tendency is to grant the land to the sheikh of the tribe rather than to individual

tribesmen, so that in reality a new feudal system is being built up. While the authority of the sheikh during the nomadic life is more or less feudal in character, yet it is greatly tempered by the democratic customs, such as the council meeting or the various meetings of all of the tribesmen, or of the elders, but in the agricultural state, when the land is given by deed, sanctioned by the government, this feudal authority becomes complete, and every contact with the government tends to strengthen the feudal character of the tenure. Unfortunately, the liberal Arabs all believe and say that the influence of the English officials, as well as of the English governmental reports, has all been in the direction of the feudal system. Even a short experience of the tribesmen with the complete feudal tenure raises much dissatisfaction, and with some incitement from the politician, this dissatisfaction was readily fanned into political revolt.

At the same time it must be noted that there are real difficulties and real objections to the assignment of lands to individual tenants. The individual tribesman did not know how to protect his land, did not know how to cultivate his land, did not know how to sell his crop so that he got the full value for his grain, did not know how to protect himself from the usurious exactions of the money-lender of the town who furnished him with pumps necessary for irrigation. It might be said that it was the duty of the sheikh to do all of these for the tribesmen, even if the tribesmen did own the land. However, it did not work that way as the sheikhs did not perform this service. Ordinarily, under the usual arrangement, the government takes one-third of the crop as tax, the sheikh one-third as owner of the land, and the tribesman one-third as the tiller of the land. Neither the sheikhs nor the government are interested in giving up their preferred positions.

Consequently, it was found that the type of tribesman that attends one of these schools was not such as to justify the government in continuing the maintenance of the school at the high price per pupil which it was costing. This school, which was situated in the vicinity of the ancient city of Babylon, was closed; the other school, down in the region nearer Ur, is still flourishing, but, at the time of my attempted visit, unfortunately was closed because of the revolt. The educational authorities are still counting on very much gain from the new type of schooling which they are introducing, but it must be admitted that the whole problem is so complicated with economic and political

factors that it is not a clear case of a decision on educational merits or demerits. So that our rural educational problem in the Near East runs into political and economic complications rather similar to those which are encountered in rural education in the West."

Education in Rural India

F. G. Pearce (Principal, The Scindia School, Gwalior)

After some introductory remarks about the size and variety of the "Continent of India," Principal Pearce said :

"I ought, perhaps, to preface my remarks with the statement that I am here concerned simply to present you with facts. I hold no brief either for the powers that be, nor against them. As an educationist, pure and simple, I am concerned first to try to envisage the problem clearly, and then to try to do my share in working towards its solution when found.

The first fact to be stated is this : assuming with the Hartog Committee that the school-going population is approximately fourteen per cent. of the total population, India ought to have nearly fifty million children in her primary schools ; actually she has about one-fourth that number. In some provinces, notably Madras, more than half the number of boys of school-going age are in school ; but the much lower proportion of girls receiving education, even in the most advanced provinces, brings the final percentage down to the figure stated. Within the last few years, however, a welcome change in the general attitude towards women has been noticeable in many parts, and this is likely to show itself in the statistics of education in the near future.

Getting children into the primary schools is one thing ; keeping them there till they have acquired a solid foundation of literacy, with the capacity to build upon it, is quite another. And this is at present the weakest spot in India's educational armour. The wastage in the primary schools, especially in rural primary schools, is appalling. Out of one hundred children who enter Class I only twenty-one reach Class IV, and only fourteen complete the course. In the previous quinquennium the number was thirteen, so the improvement in five years has been very slight.

It is this feature that makes all serious educationists in

India far more concerned at present to increase the effectiveness of primary education than merely to extend it. For it is perfectly clear that if only 20 per cent. of those who enter the primary schools succeed in attaining literacy, then a very large proportion of the money spent is absolutely thrown away.

In his latest report Sir George Anderson, Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, examines some of the reforms proposed. It is in the single-teacher schools in particular, he points out, that wastage is most rampant, and while increase and improvement in the training of teachers is clearly of the first importance, efficiency and economy would both be served if, instead of an area being served by a multiplicity of inefficient single-teacher schools, effort could be concentrated into a smaller number of larger and better schools. But the great obstacle in the way of this, in a country like India, is the sheer vastness of the territory, and the fact that almost the entire population outside the towns lives in innumerable tiny villages, miles apart. Unless, therefore, the children are to be made to trudge long distances to and from the schools, many small schools are inevitable. The ideal and only permanent solution clearly is a vast increase in the number of trained teachers. Till those are provided, it seems mere waste of money to multiply the number of schools.

This leads us to our next fact. Primary school teachers for the most part are at present recruited from those who have received their education in town schools. They have, generally speaking, but little real interest in village life; they endure it as long as they must, chiefly in the hope that promotion will take them back to the town and to the environment they have become accustomed to. Such teachers, it is evident, are unlikely to be capable of making a village school all that it might be. For this reason, again, practical educationists in India are trying to devise ways of fitting the promising village child to go back to his own village or to a neighbouring one, after training, and to use his newly-acquired abilities there rather than to seek employment in the town.

While improvement in the quality of the village teacher is undoubtedly the chief factor in the reform of education in rural India, the problem has to be simultaneously tackled from the other end also. This leads to my next fact. One of the principal reasons why the towns draw away the most promising young people from the villages and make no

corresponding return, is that life in an ordinary village in India is so dreadfully drab, dull and hopeless. This is due almost entirely to the appalling poverty. The official estimate of the average income per head in India, including the incomes of the town-dwellers and the wealthier classes, is £2 per year. If the incomes of the wealthy minority are excluded from the reckoning, the average works out at something like 15s. per year, or rather less than a halfpenny per day per person. It is obvious that people who live at this level can have little energy left for anything outside the actual struggle for existence. To speak of education at all amid such conditions might seem like madness. But it does not appear so mad when one visits an Indian village and observes how much of the poverty is due to ignorance, and to the disease and waste that follow in its train. More people perished of influenza alone in India in 1918 than were killed on both sides during the four years of the Great War. Sir John Megaw, Director of the Indian Medical Service, says that the average number who annually suffer from malaria, a preventable disease, is fifty millions, and the number may easily rise to one hundred millions (more than one person out of every four) in some years. It is hardly to be wondered at that the average expectation of life is only twenty-three years, as against fifty-five in England and Wales.

It seems pretty clear that all who live in India with any object other than mere self-seeking have at last arrived at the conclusion that whatever means can aid the Indian villager to earn more and improve his standard of living ought to be welcomed. And this probably accounts for the now very considerable number of agencies, both official and non-official, Indian and foreign, missionary and non-sectarian, which are now at work trying along a number of different lines to bring about what is variously termed 'rural reconstruction,' 'village uplift,' or 'rural welfare.' The variety of methods is certainly all to the good at this stage, because in a country the size of India with such a diverse population it is unlikely that exactly the same methods can be made to succeed equally well everywhere. On the other hand, it is fortunate that there exists at least one body, the Indian Village Welfare Association, whose object is to collect and collate information about the experiments being tried in different parts of the country, as well as to support such efforts as its members consider to be on sound lines.

And though perhaps these activities do not come strictly under the head of 'education,' they are so directly connected with the same object as that which rural education must achieve if it is to be anything more than mere instruction in the three 'R's,' that I feel it is essential to include in this review some account of a few of the most important of them.

Since the necessity of being brief compels me to select only a few of the experiments for mention here, I propose to choose three: the first of them, originated by India's poet-laureate, philosopher, novelist, playwright, educationist and painter, Dr. Rabindranath Tagore, represents the purely non-official effort, unaided by Government. The second, the work of Mr. F. L. Brayne, I.C.S., is its very antithesis. The third, Dr. Spencer Hatch's work in Travancore, represents missionary enterprise, but on such a broad non-sectarian and non-evangelical basis that it receives support not only from the Government of the Hindu State of Travancore, where it is carried on, but also from non-officials of all castes and classes. Let me hasten to add that in mentioning these three experiments in contrast to one another, I do not wish to imply the inferiority or superiority of any. On the contrary, I mean to show that efforts are being made to tackle the same problem from all sides and by all possible agencies, and that each contributes experience which cannot but be of value ultimately in helping to reach a solution.

It is surely significant that Gandhi himself is now in the forefront of those who regard rural reconstruction and education as *the* task of all the tasks that demand the urgent attention of research workers and pioneers of progress in India.

This same was the conviction of Rabindranath Tagore, years back, and as a result of it he founded in due course his Institute of Rural Reconstruction, Sriniketan, side by side with his famous school, Shantiniketan, as an integral part of his International University, Viswabharati.

Sriniketan is a colony in which, along with experimental work in agriculture, sericulture, and the revival of village crafts, an attempt is being made to reconstruct from within the life of several neighbouring hamlets, of which an exhaustive scientific survey and study is being made. Workers from Tagore's own colony of Shantiniketan are training promising children of the villages to return thither as teachers in the village schools. Groups of the village boys are trained for social service and co-operative uplift work, on

lines similar in many respects to the Boy Scout training. Co-operative societies and a central Bank have been formed, to enable the peasants to free themselves from the clutches of the ordinary money-lenders who charge such exorbitant interest on petty loans that their creditors generally become their life-victims. A fine spirit of self-sacrifice and eager collaboration pervades the institution, a spirit emanating from its founder and head, and influencing the entire body of workers and pupils from top to bottom. The aim of Sriniketan is ultimately to revive in the villagers themselves the spirit of self-reliance, self-help and co-operation, which will enable them to carry on and develop by themselves the various activities for the improvement of their life.

Mr. F. L. Brayne, of the Indian Civil Service, is known to many through his brilliant books 'Socrates in an Indian Village' and 'The Re-making of Village India' (Oxford University Press). His method at Gurgaon, near Delhi, from 1920 to 1928, and now in the Punjab, has been to carry on a vigorous intensive campaign to persuade the villagers (one might almost say to goad them with every possible instrument of persuasion, official as well as unofficial, short of actual force) into cleaning the village streets, digging rubbish-pits and silo-pits, getting themselves and their children inoculated, vaccinated and dosed with quinine, and avoiding wasteful expenditure and indebtedness incurred through litigation. To carry on this work, whole-time helpers known as village guides have been trained, and unofficial assistance roped in by the formation of Rural Community Councils. The advice and help of the various official departments concerned has been secured, the more easily because Mr. Brayne himself is a high official of the Government. At Gurgaon a good many of the useful activities started did not long survive the removal of the vigorous and cheerful presence of Mr. Brayne, and it remains to be seen how far his methods, now somewhat modified in the light of experience, will be successful in the Punjab where he is now working as Commissioner for Rural Reconstruction. Whatever may be the immediate results it is only fair to record, as Mr. Strickland does in his booklet on Rural Welfare Activities, that: 'The principal value of the Gurgaon experiment lies in the great impression made on the Indian public outside Gurgaon, the demonstration that the peasant could be induced to welcome rural reconstruction, and the awakening of Governments and private persons to the fact that the time

had come for an advance on a wide front. There are few recent schemes of rural welfare in India which have not manifestly been stimulated by the Gurgaon experiment and which do not adopt many of its ideas.'

Dr. Spencer Hatch, a Y.M.C.A. worker who has chosen the South Indian State of Travancore as his field of labour, has attempted to tackle the problem from another angle, nearer to that of Dr. Tagore's experiment than to that of Mr. Brayne's, but making use rather more definitely of the human motive of personal gain, which, if at all it needs excuse, is surely most excusable in the case of down-trodden villagers who possess next to nothing of their own. In his book, 'Up from Poverty' (Oxford University Press, 1933), Dr. Hatch, describing his work, says: 'The central principle involved is self-help with intimate personal counsel.' The method can best be described in a nutshell through the following passage culled from Dr. Hatch's book. It runs as follows: 'A beautiful White Leghorn cock proudly surveys his flock of a dozen busy, healthy, crimson-headed laying hens. They are the joy of the village family who live in this modest little thatch and mud hut. Try to buy one of these hens. "No," the village man says, "why sell any of my hens? I sell big eggs through my co-operative society, at high prices." The Indian villager is wiser than was the owner of the goose that laid the golden egg. A progressive village family like this, which makes success with any of the projects we are teaching, is a demonstrator par excellencce. The neighbours say, "Here is a family like ourselves. What they are doing profitably we can do." This demonstration is copied where once at a Government farm or even at our Centre probably would not be. I can show you where whole villages miles from our Centre have become interested in better poultry, through a single successful pioneer family in each village. The discovery of the demonstration method for rural improvement is one of the greatest contributions to agricultural science. It is not only a discovery of a new rural truth, but of a new way of disseminating all the vast treasures of truth that others have developed. Demonstration is the most effective of all teaching methods. . . . As we use it, it is the method of seeing and doing. The learner sees helpful practices illustrated at the Demonstration Centre, or in his village, at his own home or at the home of a neighbour; and he is given the opportunity actually to have a hand in—to do the thing—himself.'

From the above it will be seen how Dr. Hatch applies the principles mentioned in the first quotation from his book. The 'intimate expert counsel' he provides for the villager in the shape of some well-trying means of increasing the villager's welfare or prosperity, be it in the form of a better breed of poultry, cattle, goats or bees, co-operative marketing, or better organisation. The villager's own experience provides him with the proof of the soundness of the counsel; self-help follows, and along with it a practical lesson in the value of co-operation, at first no doubt with the main object of personal profit, but later on with the added motive of benefiting the community in order to benefit each and all.

From very small beginnings Dr. Hatch has now developed, with the assistance of non-officials of all classes and castes, and that of the Travancore State Government, a number of centres at which are trained workers, who in their turn become the nuclei of similar centres of 'intimate personal counsel' to others. The centres also serve as demonstration centres, and it is important to note that no attempt is made to enable them to demonstrate things on an ideal scale which would be quite out of reach of the average villager. The aim is to provide examples of just exactly those improvements that lie within the means and the ability of the ordinary poor peasant to effect for his own and his neighbours' benefit. For example, in addition to the improved poultry, cattle, goats and bees, there will be plots of grass and other richer fodder crops grown from seed locally available, for shortage of fodder for his tiny flocks is one of the most serious problems that the Indian farmer has to face. There will also be seen demonstration plots of superior vegetables and fruit marketable at higher rates than the produce usually grown. The poultry-houses will not be ideal expensive ones, but just such as the poorest villager can make out of materials at hand. Likewise the bee-hives, farm implements and cattle sheds. There will also be a hand-loom, and a helper to teach the working of it. Outside there will be a model bore-hole latrine, and the rest of the yard will be a playing-field for the children, practice ground for the Scouts, and volley-ball courts for the older youth. Every centre has its library, which is also the centre of the circulating library of the area, and its small hall used for meetings, lectures, exhibitions, shows and drainas. In short, these centres are the nuclei of life and culture for the locality. An area of about 100 miles has thus been gradually permeated

with new hope and vitality. The experiment seems to be full of promise on the economic as well as the educational side. This is its special significance, for, it seems to me, any attempt to assist the Indian villager, which does not help him materially as well as morally, is doomed to failure.

It may seem to some of those who have listened to this paper that I have allowed myself to wander too far from the topic of education in its strictest sense. My excuse for having done so is that, if I am certain of any one thing about India after having spent all my life in educational work there, it is that one of the greatest curses of India at present is that so-called education which is merely the cramming of books. It has spoiled the teachers and it has spoiled the taught. And it has created in our time a vast class of 'educated' unemployed, young men who with matriculation certificates or even university degrees are crowding the towns, unable to find work that they *can* do, and unfit to do the work that needs doing so badly. Having seen this, having been myself for most of my life a part of the system that has produced it, I may perhaps be forgiven if I interpret the term 'education,' especially as applied to rural India, as meaning a training that will fit the boys and girls, the men and women of that marvellous, lovely, yet so piteous country-side, to make of themselves something better than they are, and to make of their great country in the years to be a country that may contribute anew, as it has contributed in the distant past so much, to the enrichment of the culture of mankind. My own belief is that India is capable of doing that, and that she *will*."

Trends in American Rural Education

Dr. John E. Dugan (Princetown Public Schools,
U.S.A.)

"This discussion is concerned with trends in American rural education. Furthermore, it is concerned with those trends which are in the direction of progress. As is the case throughout the world in these troubled times, the American schools have had their problems, their difficulties, their disappointments, and some failures. They have been harassed by the depression. This meeting to-day, however, is not concerned with purely local difficulties. Neither has it met to discuss failures. We are gathered here in the

interest of educational progress. It is encouraging, therefore, to know that there is evidence of certain general trends in the direction of progress in American rural education which far outweighs the set-backs and disappointments. It is with these trends that we shall be concerned.

Certain phases of the current educational situation in rural America are tied up with President Roosevelt's recovery programme. Since Miss Powers is to discuss these this afternoon, they will not be emphasised here.

Education in the United States is highly decentralised. There is no national system of schools. The Government at Washington is interested in education, but it does not run the schools. It collects and distributes educational data, makes surveys, acts in an advisory capacity, and sometimes contributes funds; but it has no power to impose policies or to dictate practices. The country has more than 125,000 school districts,* each of which, in the last analysis, can solve its own educational problems pretty much as it sees fit.

The Governments of the forty-eight States which make up the United States theoretically have the responsibility of organising their own educational programmes, and they do exercise varying degrees of control over the school districts within their respective boundaries; but even here, in most cases, the local districts are pretty much the masters of their own destinies.

This decentralisation of organisation in education results in a great variety of practices and procedures in the schools of the nation. It makes any description of the typical American rural school very difficult. At the same time, however, it gives to local districts the opportunity to experiment with various means for solving their own educational problems.

This freedom of action often keeps school affairs in a flux, but at the same time it holds open the door of opportunity for progress through experimentation. If one district seems to solve a problem successfully by a new procedure, we may expect other districts to follow its example with the hope of achieving like success. If a number of districts begin to follow the same example, a trend develops. By observing the development and movement of these trends we may judge the direction in which educational endeavour is moving.

* "Critical Problems in School Administration." *Twelfth Yearbook*, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, Washington, February, 1934, p. 41.

The division of the country into so many educational units does not always make for progress, however. Sometimes it permits districts to stand still or fall behind while others move ahead. The financial resources may vary so greatly from region to region that a poor district may not be able even to attempt what a more wealthy district can accomplish with ease. The Educational Finance Inquiry Commission found that of 1,317 elementary school districts which it investigated in ten typical counties in Illinois, 352 had assessed property valuation per child of school age of \$4,900 or less, while six districts had valuations per child of \$45,000 or more.* Obviously the two types of districts could not even think in terms of the same school programme.

There has been a definite movement in the United States toward the adoption of some means for equalising the educational differences between such districts. Sometimes this is attempted through the organisation of education on a county basis, making opportunities more equal for children throughout a county. Sometimes it is attempted through a state school fund which is collected throughout the state on the basis of ability to pay, and disbursed throughout the state on the basis of educational need. Many believe that the national government should collect and distribute educational funds throughout the nation on the same basis. Since rural districts are usually those without great sources of wealth, this movement for financial equalisation operates to the advantage of the rural schools.

Through the Smith-Hughes Act, passed in 1917 and still in effect, the national government has given substantial financial support to programmes of vocational training in agriculture and home economics in rural areas.

In addition to the movement for equalisation in financial support for schools, there has been a marked movement for greater educational opportunities for rural children through the consolidation of schools in rural districts.

Traditionally the rural school in the United States is a one-room institution presided over by one teacher, who endeavours to teach all the children all that they should learn. There now is a very definite trend toward replacing these small schools with larger consolidated schools, centrally located, and serving the children of a larger area. These centralised consolidated schools, since the educational effort

* *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1933, pp. 373-4.

is efficiently centralised in one place rather than dissipated in a number of small schools, usually have better equipment, a larger and better trained faculty, and offer a richer and more varied programme than would be possible in the one room schools. Pupils usually are transported to and from these consolidated schools by auto buses at public expense. Driving through rural America in the afternoon, it is common to see the rural consolidated school with a line of buses standing in front, waiting to take the pupils home at the end of their school day.

The consolidated school often is a community centre for students and parents. It brings individuals of one district into contact with those from another. It exposes them to new people and new ideas. It helps them to think of themselves as citizens of a larger community instead of an isolated district.

This expanding idea of a larger citizenship in rural communities has been helped by the radio, the press, and the motion picture. It is reflected in the schools by an increased interest in the social studies. This is not indicated merely by the increasingly important place which these studies are taking in the school programme, but also by the keen interest with which students approach them.

Rural America has seen the phenomenon of an overabundance of food while people were hungry. It has seen carpenters and bricklayers idle while buildings needed repair. It has seen people in need of clothes while clothiers were unable to dispose of their supply. It does not blame any particular person or thing, but it realises the existence of a problem. Furthermore, it realises that it is not a local problem, the farmer's problem, the city's problem, or any one person's problem, but a problem of much wider significance, a problem in which all of us are involved. It is not even a purely national problem, but is tied up with the welfare and progress of the world at large. It is a problem of social organisation and inter-relationship of wide scope that challenges the student's interest and activity in the social sciences.

The expansion of the curriculum is a significant trend in American rural education. Traditionally the rural school has been a place for the teaching of the tool subjects—reading, writing, arithmetic and spelling, with a little history and geography thrown in for good measure. All this is changing.

The United States Government recently published the

findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education. One monograph deals with the smaller secondary school. This study was based on data obtained from 614 schools located chiefly in rural areas. The study reported a 'trend toward a curriculum more closely related to the conditions and problems of modern life and toward subjects of a practical character. This trend is shown in the addition of such subjects as economics, problems of democracy, study of occupations, commercial subjects, agriculture, and home economics. A lesser trend toward the appreciational subjects is indicated by the relatively large number of schools that have recently added music to the curriculum and the smaller number that have added the study of art.'^{*}

This adjustment of the curriculum extends to the one-room elementary school. Instruction is often given in science, health, social science, etc. Last year one teachers' college in New Jersey gave a course of instruction in the utilisation of cheap, easily obtained materials to illustrate scientific laws in small rural schools where laboratories and laboratory material were not available.

The change in the school programme is not limited to strictly academic lines. The National Survey monograph already mentioned reported that rural schools were recognising the importance of the development of the child's whole personality through provision for extra-curricular activities such as clubs, social activities, assemblies, athletics, student participation in school government, etc.[†]

A school programme organised according to these principles is not a rigid affair. Pupils are not considered so many receptacles into which a certain amount of knowledge must be poured. They are individuals, and the function of the school programme is to adapt itself to their needs. Furthermore, these needs are not concerned with just themselves. They are concerned with the community, the nation, and the world in which they live. Under such an ideal rural education no longer is just a rural matter; it is a programme for adjusting the rural child to a whole world of modern living.

We have considered certain trends in American rural education. We have noted the movement for financial

* "The Smaller Secondary School." *Bulletin*, 1932, No. 17, *National Survey of Secondary Education*, Monograph No. 6, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, 1933, pp. 122-3.

† "The Smaller Secondary School." *Bulletin*, 1932, No. 17, *National Survey of Secondary Education*, Monograph No. 6, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, 1933, p. 169.

equalisation, the trend toward consolidation, and the changing and expanding curriculum. We have considered the rising interest in the social studies and the trend toward the philosophy that the function of the school is to develop the child as an individual personality, at the same time training him to meet his responsibilities in a modern world.

Not all rural schools in the United States are making great progress along the lines of all these trends. Some are. Some are not. But these trends represent the channels through which progress in rural education in the United States is moving. They are signposts which indicate the direction toward which rural education seems to be progressing."

SECOND SESSION, TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST,

2.0 P.M.—4.30 P.M.

Education in Rural Life

G. B. Brown (Director of Education, Cumberland)

The Rural School Problem

"Cinderella, I suppose, is international enough to serve as a comparison. She was a fascinating little slut, with immense latent possibilities, doing her humble scullery job with negligible influence on those about her—just a lift of the nose from her elder, sophisticated, and well-endowed sisters, who took everything. And English Rural Education was rather like that—ill-dressed, subjected to crippling rules, kept in the background, limited in her pocket-money; and scorned by her furbelowed sisters of the Residential and Industrial Areas.

On the broad issue, there are no such schools as 'rural schools'—if one is to define or describe only by desirable and distinctive attributes. For the English rural school must be assessed, as against even an average town school, by a subtraction of decent attributes rather than by a variation. It was a pale striving after the qualities of the town school, but it fell short in sanitation, in lighting, in water supply, in playground, in furnishing, in staffing, and in

books. Mind, there were many exceptions, but even these shared the greatest disability of all—difficult class grouping.

It is to be borne in mind, however, that in rural areas by far the bulk of the schools are voluntary schools. They were considered, for the most part, admirable at the time of their building. They came when the administrative unit was small—the parish community. Most of them represent a purposeful and creditable ebullition of local patriotism or an expression of firm religious conviction, and their shortcomings may be called, quite often, the scars of honourable battle to which there was no conscription.

Nevertheless, they were built for a smaller problem, for a narrower outlook, for a lower conception of responsibility, and for an earlier leaving age—and they have become the more out-of-date because rural depopulation has reduced so many of their rolls and has made difficult the justification of several-unit staffing. They were planned for a leaving-age of ten or eleven or twelve, and for the three R's—and it was not realised how vivid an approach to those lay through the hands and the muscles and the charmingly spoken word—through gardening and its coupled experimental sciences, through manual crafts and housewifery, through drama and dancing and the debate. But these are the things which can give, at last, a real rural hegemony to the rural school, and they demand special groupings, special teachers, and special premises. And the groupings are the governing factor which alone can make the other needs economically possible of attainment.

The Reorganised Schools—The Hadow Scheme

To this Cinderella of educational provision, then, came a Fairy Godmother—in the odd form of Sir Henry Hadow's Consultative Committee, and the magic wand is called the 'Hadow Report.' The basic recommendation of the Report is, as all are well aware, a 'break' at eleven plus and the transference of senior children thus defined to separate schools, departments, or (where the major collection is impossible) sections of schools. And here at last was a brave and effective stroke in reorganisation which offered itself to most rural as well as urban areas, for the proposals happened to coincide with a vast development of road motor transport. But for this development the reorganisation must have been confined to urban areas and the more heavily populated agricultural plains. There is still a supplementary measure to come, as I shall show.

Now the Fairy Godmother's wand in the story brought things to pass in the twinkling of an eye, but then it did not have to contend with an era of high building costs, with the difficulties of the dual system, with the slow shift of public opinion and the need for preaching towards conversion. In a few rural administrative areas, then, which presented a tolerably easy problem of reasonably heavy and evenly distributed population, well-placed and readily recognised centralisation points, even contour, and less inflated building costs—all these coupled with a vigorous spirit towards reconstruction—the Hadow Scheme was adopted as a common measure. Other areas accomplished experimental reorganisations in selected regions, taking, as a rule, those in which the staffing savings would cover the new transport costs, or where the depopulation had left such space in existing buildings as could be filled conveniently by a centralisation of Seniors. Other areas did little or nothing beyond studying the question, working out the local Scheme for which the Board of Education called, and preaching for conversion.

I think it is commonly agreed by those who have made close contacts with Hadow schemes that there has been a very genuine and striking gain in efficiency and liveliness to the residues—the beheaded Junior Departments—which have now a more limited but well-defined objective. The Senior Departments, however, have not come to full stature, and whilst their plan is happy and logical (and especially merciful in its decatenation of the dull child) they are giving, to their oldest eleven plus entrants who leave early, only a two-years' course.

The East Suffolk Reorganisation

It is the fate, unhappily, of pioneers, to gain less than those who follow. After the period of vigorous enterprise came a season of check, through the national financial situation. Whatever title one may use for it there was, in fact, an embargo on building—unless one could show that costs would be balanced by 'compensating economies.' But during this season (which was ended by a Circular the other day) the Board permitted a volume of experimental work to go forward in certain areas, and especially notably (so far as rural authorities are concerned) in East Suffolk, where the reorganisation of a full 25 per cent. of the County was accomplished.

This reorganisation is well worthy of study by our visitors,

and I commend to them the Board's Pamphlet upon it and the Paper given by my friend, Mr. H. M. Spink at the Brighton Conference of the N.U.T., in 1934. To quote my own Paper of 1926—'To tear up agricultural community children and to thrust them, utterly outnumbered, into a mining-technical town elementary school, without regard to their outlook and environment, is an outrage.' But here in East Suffolk you have a series of Area Schools (a good 'reminding' title this) brightly and economically planned, varying in size and in style and appropriate to their user, and placed on really roomy sites at well-selected centres in which the outlook is genuinely rural. In all the planning, in the lay-out of the ground, in the equipment of the rooms, the rural environment has been the governing factor. There has been a rural re-orientation in the curriculum.

And it is not only in curriculum, lay-out, and environment that it has been sought to influence rural life, for the Authority has carried out by Bye-law a scheme for the raising of the School Leaving Age to fifteen.

'The Authority decided to experiment with a *form of control over employment* by raising the School Leaving Age to fifteen years, subject to the granting of exemptions.'

The following conclusions emerge from the experiment :—

1. The number of unemployed juveniles *has been* very materially reduced.
2. *Blind-alley occupation has largely ceased to exist*, owing to the very firm consideration given by the Assessing Committee to types of occupation.
3. There is an awakening amongst employers to the need for *some form of apprenticeship*—a new, or recreated, social conscience.
4. There is an increasing tendency to leave children at school, readily and without question, to fifteen or beyond.
5. The Medical Officer's Report is an important factor in the scheme—and the advisory work of the Medical Staff has grown in scope and appreciation.
6. There is little demand for Maintenance Allowances.

Here, then, is a scheme which is so plainly interwoven, educationally, with the needs of rural life, and is having admirable repercussions on the social structure.

Transport Problems

And here let me quarrel with the Board of Education—or rather with the holders of its purse-strings. There are anomalies in the Grant System by which Exchequer monies are paid over by the State to the Authorities. Here is a crippling anomaly. This East Suffolk Sectional Scheme has become possible of achievement by one thing alone—the bicycle. The County presents, in these its reorganised areas, certain well-defined characteristics.

- (a) Its population is evenly spread, so that to a given centre one may draw from all points. It is possible to secure a reasonable concentration without going far afield.
- (b) There are few hills.
- (c) Owing to the distribution of populated communities there is a well-developed system of quiet by-roads.
- (d) The rainfall is about 24 inches per annum.

These conditions cry for the bicycle, which can be provided for a few shillings per year.

In my own County of Cumberland the conditions are these :—

- (a) The population lies in 'strings and pockets,' not in broad evenly-occupied patches. There are intervening heaths, mosses, lakes, and mountains. It is necessary, therefore, to go far (each way) along the 'string' to secure a reasonable concentration.
- (b) Our gradients are well known.
- (c) Owing to the distribution of population the main roads follow the 'strings' and must be used, with all their dangers, for centralising traffic.
- (d) Our rainfall ranges from 40 to over 100 inches.

These conditions make it necessary to use the 'bus, and the 'bus is costly. Frequently it has a good deal of 'dead mileage' before it reaches its operation point, for the big companies and the Traffic Commissioners' regulations have demolished the 'small man.' Now the Board pays grant at the rate of 60 per cent. on Teachers' Salaries (on which one's only savings come by reorganisation). The grant rate on Transport is 20 per cent., or one-fifth. In other words, Cinderella's Fairy Godmother gave her a fine four-wheeled coach; the Board offers to the modern Cinderella—just the spare wheel.

The Developing Area School

The revelations of experimental work, the lifting of building restrictions, the steady and happy shift of public opinion, the cordial relationships which have arisen with Voluntary Managers and with Archidiaconal advisers of Diocesan Committees (who have co-operated in the production and acceptance of an Agreed Syllabus of Religious Instruction)—all these things tend now to the rapid development of this Green Revolution in Education. It may be asked, however—‘What is the fate of the villages stripped of their schools, or of their children?’ It does happen, in some cases that it becomes possible, and even economically necessary, to close or combine village schools, but for the most part any village which has at present a worth-while school will retain it in its junior function. But the title ‘Area School’ is a happy one, and the Headmaster of such a centralisation must forever remember that he is rather Bishop of a Diocese than incumbent of a Parish. Parents’ Committees, Open Days, Managerial Representation, will all help to maintain contact, but the chief association comes later in this paper. It is an adolescent and adult association.

Rural Secondary Schools

The Rural Secondary Schools of Cumberland—Alston, Brampton, Cockermouth, and (now) Penrith—have been well to the fore in experimental work in the adaptation of their Science Courses to rural needs. The Secondary School Course is closely governed by the examination syllabus imposed by the Universities, but the Durham University pioneered the introduction of a Biology Course of such tendencies as to be materially helpful to the specialist work of the Schools. The influence of the Rural Courses permeates in an increasing degree the Craft work and the Domestic Science teaching.

The Farm School and Its Staff

The Counties of Cumberland and Westmorland administer jointly, through an Agricultural Education Committee, their Farm School at Newton Rigg. This institution, which is an exemplar of one type of baby Agricultural College, serves a dual purpose. It has residential accommodation for twenty students, and provides a Winter Course (twenty weeks) for men and a Summer Course (twenty weeks, or twelve and/or eight) for Women, these courses being planned

specifically to improve through the young people the level of farming in the two counties. The best student, by examination, may be sent forward to the Agricultural Department at Armstrong College (University of Durham) or to some other Senior Course of Study.

In its other function the Farm School is the head-quarters of the Agricultural Organiser and his specialist staff who lecture and demonstrate, in the counties, in Agriculture, Poultry-work, Dairying, Horticulture, etc. They have established a happy linking with the work of Primary and Secondary Schools, and with the developing Horticultural and Land Settlement work of the Distressed Area.

The County Library

The County Library has over 200 centres and a book stock of 50,000. It has specialist sections for schools and for teachers' reference, but there is freedom of transfer between the sections. It sends complete supplies to such educational activities as University Tutorial and Extension Courses, W.E.A. Classes, Reading Circles, or to private students. Some of its specially developed sections are :—

Agriculture Pamphlets.

Drama (the county has a vigorous branch of the British

Drama League centred on the Education Office).

Local History.

Geography and Travel (the largest branch of the Geographical Association is centred in the Office).

Lantern-slides.

Lantern and Batteries or Generators.

Summary of Available Institutions

Here then is a list of our available institutions when reorganisation is really substantially advanced :—

1. The Primary School in its home Village.
2. The Area School at a suitable Centre :—
 - Lecture Hall, with Gymnasium and Stage.
 - Laboratories.
 - Art Room.
 - Practical Subjects Rooms.
 - Domestic Science and Needlework Rooms.
 - Library Centre.
3. Rural Secondary Schools, with a developing rural bias.

4. Farm School, with small outlet to University Courses, and with an expanding travelling advisory staff.
5. The Library.

Adult Education and Further Education—Blending

No scheme of Rural Education can have come to full stature unless it has co-ordinated its facilities, using every tool economically for the full working hours and for every available task for which it is suited. In a developed scheme, planned to influence Rural Life, there is no leaving age at all, for the units listed in the paragraph above can accept as students, at some part of the day or evening, rural people of both sexes and all ages.

The County has at present some 140 centres of Evening Education. Most of these are necessarily within the village schools, where the equipment, furnishing, and lighting, though they have been in some measure specially adapted, are by no means ideal or even on a par with the enthusiasm of the students. A heavy proportion of the classes are Women's Craft Classes, for in this rural area, whether by their natural qualities or by the stimulation of the Women's Institute Movement, the women are far ahead of the men in educational vigour and interest. In fact, the mother is the family stimulus to further Education.

With the provision of a system of Area Schools, with defined lines of transport (renewable in the evenings as necessary) it should be possible to couple a concentration of these rural classes with an expansion of their content and an improvement of their quality. To accomplish this should be one endeavour of the Area School and its staff. Furthermore, the Area School should provide a dual and better qualified feed to the Farm School (of which an enlargement might well be contemplated) by passing forward :—

- (a) Selected senior pupils directly from its highest sections, in which they would have received sound basic instruction ;
- (b) less able pupils who have continued to attend evening classes after passing from school into agricultural employment.

Here, then, is a lay-out of the functions of the Area School and the Farm School, which should become, by mutual contacts, the chief educational influences on rural life.

The Functions of the Area School and its Linking with the Farm School

I. THE AREA SCHOOL.

Feed—At eleven plus from the Local Junior School and from decapitated schools in surrounding villages.

Output—(a) To local employment, especially agricultural.

(b) To Evening Classes—which may feed to some extent to the Farm School.

(c) In small selected volume, to the Farm School.

(d) By selected late entry (say at twelve) to the Rural Secondary School.

Day Activities.

The Mother Tongue.

Civics (these will be voters shortly).

Physical Training, Dancing, and Organised Games.

Mathematics and Surveying.

Geography, History, and Rural Survey.

Science in relation to Farm and Crops.

Gardening, Poultry-keeping, Beekeeping, Fruit-growing. (The Young Farmers' Clubs).

Handwork (wood and metal) applied to the Farm.

Domestic Science, Home and Dairy.

Needlecraft.

Music and Art.

Farmers' Reference Library (with ever open door).

Staff Using Building :—

(a) The School Staff, including Specialists.

(b) The Farm School Travelling Specialists, who link up with Day and Evening Work.

(c) The University Extra-mural Staff, W.E.A. Tutors, etc.

(d) Visiting Lecturers.

Evening Activities.

University Tutorial, Extension and W.E.A. Classes.

Evening Institute Classes for both sexes and all ages.

Agricultural Lecture Courses (with laboratory practice).

Drama League Branches.

Musical Societies.

Old Pupils' Clubs, with Games, etc.

Continuation of Young Farmers' Clubs.

Milk Testing Station.

Rural Library (with special emphasis on Farm Reference Section).

II. THE FARM SCHOOL.

Feed—(in improved quality).

- (a) Selected pupils leaving the Area School.
- (b) Older pupils from Evening Institute Courses.
- (c) Others, out of reach of these facilities.

Ouput —(a) To Farms (the great bulk).

- (b) To University Courses or Courses in Special Branches such as Dairying or Poultry-work (by Scholarship).

Term Activities.

Vacation Activities.

(for Young Men and Women)

Agriculture.

Dairying.

Poultry.

Simple Veterinary Science.

Horticulture.

Carpentry.

Bee-keeping.

Short Courses for Women's Institutes.

Short Courses for Domestic Science Teachers.

Bee-keepers' Courses, etc.

This Organisation is a plan for making Education a real influence on Rural Life.

So far as Evening Institute work is concerned it would be possible to multiply further examples, but one happens to be amply illustrated in the Exhibition—the attempt to develop the Herdwick Wool Industry. I should like you to see this."

Rural Life and Rural Education in Canada

V. K. Greer (Chief Inspector of Schools, Ontario)

"The educational system, or systems, of a country can be understood only by reference to the geography and history of that country. In Canada there are four basic facts which underlie the whole structure of her education: (a) the great extent of the country; (b) her mixed population; (c) her wide extent of sparsely populated areas along with her urban centres and thickly populated areas; and (d) the nine completely autonomous provincial systems of education with absolutely no national control of education. Let us examine these four facts briefly.

In size, Canada is the third country in the world, surpassed only by Russia, including her Asiatic possessions, and China.

Canada is only slightly smaller than Europe. The approximate area of the Dominion is 3,700,000 square miles, that of Europe about 3,800,000 square miles.

It is obvious therefore that when one speaks of education in Canada he must be careful to differentiate the various provincial educational activities, though, as a matter of fact, there is a great deal of resemblance in the educational processes throughout Canada. One may say in general that Canadians have great faith in education, that they are generous in their support of schools from the kindergarten to the university, and that education is free, compulsory and co-educational. Private schools, and schools exclusively for one sex, minister only to a small fraction of Canadian boys and girls.

General Depopulation of Rural Areas

Another fact which must be noted is the general depopulation of rural areas, chiefly between 1880 and 1930. During that half-century the decline in some districts reached as high as 45 per cent. Two main causes were at work, (a) the mechanisation of agriculture with its consequent displacement of man power, and (b) the age-long attractiveness of city and town life as compared with rural. During these last five years, however, this rush to the city has been arrested and there has been some flow of the tide back to the country. The stability of the country-side has triumphed over the restless uncertainty of town and city.

To present in brief compass a clear and adequate picture of rural life and education in such a vast country demands that your attention must be focussed on broad general outlines. This paper, therefore, will centre around (a) the rural schools, (b) the teachers and the inspectors, (c) the special educational services, (d) auxiliary agencies, and (e) other factors in rural life. The details will be found in the complete copy of the paper which is furnished to the Secretary of the Association.

Rural Schools

School enrolment in Canada is very high, about twenty-two per cent. of the total population. The rural school enrolment is about 850,000, almost evenly divided between the sexes. The attendance is also high. In Ontario, for example, the rural attendance for 1934 was 89.35 per cent. of the enrolment as compared with 92.84 per cent. for urban attendance.

For the greater part of rural Canada the prevailing school

is the small, one-teacher school, administered by a local elected school board of three trustees for the school section of a few square miles. The consolidation of rural schools with the enlargement of the administrative unit has been a live question for years. The Province of Manitoba led the way in 1905. There are now 248 consolidated schools, located in six of the provinces—British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario and New Brunswick. The rural taxpayer has not yet, however, to any considerable extent, welcomed the consolidated school, preferring to maintain his local autonomy in school affairs.

While the one-teacher school is the general type of rural school, there are hundreds of rural schools of much superior types. These better schools are attractive buildings with well-lighted schoolroom, equipped with modern appliances and library, with basement and furnace, and with spacious grounds for play and for school gardens.

To provide for families in Northern Ontario who live along our trans-continental railway lines in isolation from other families, the Province of Ontario, some years ago, worked out a novel type of school. A standard railway coach or car was transformed into a travelling school, a well-equipped schoolroom taking most of the space, and the teacher's living quarters the remaining part. So successful was this venture that six of these school cars are in constant use. The school car is stationed at an isolated railway station for two or three days, or longer, and the teacher gives careful attention to the few children there and provides home work to keep them busy for the next two or three weeks. Then the car moves on to the next stopping place, and so on till the schedule is completed. Over and over again this routine is followed during the ten months of the school year. The success of these schools on wheels has been striking.

Following up this attempt to care for families scattered by ones and twos along the railway lines, came the correspondence courses for children in remoter places, sometimes a solitary family miles away from a railway, in the lumbering and mining districts.

During the last few years every province in Canada has been seething with a spirit of inquiry into school curricula, with many resultant changes, either actually incorporated into the school programmes or still under consideration. Not only educationists are having a hand in these reconstructions, but leaders in commerce, industry, agriculture and other spheres are being called into council. Teachers'

organisations are being consulted. The general result will be decidedly for the betterment of our schools.

The rage for extra-curricula activities has not passed our rural schools by. There are thousands of rural school clubs in Canada for both boys and girls. There are hundreds of school fairs with all the excitement and social contacts of such events. There are short courses in agriculture and home economics in the winter months. There are journeys to the provincial agricultural farms. There are 'young farmers' picnics and public meetings of many kinds.

The cost of education in Canada is met from two sources—local taxation and provincial grants. The general principle underlying the provincial grants is that of assistance to municipalities according to their financial ability. That is to say, the provincial grant to a city like Toronto, which spends \$10,000,000 a year on its schools is very small, while the cost of the school in a struggling or remote section is almost entirely borne by the Legislature. Speaking generally, Canada has a dual administrative control of her schools (local and provincial) and a dual source of educational income (local and provincial). The amount from school fees of any kind is negligible. In fact, many school boards provide textbooks and supplies.

School costs in Canada range from 19 cents per pupil-day in Prince Edward Island to 49 cents per pupil-day in Ontario; the percentage of the cost borne by the Provincial Government ranges from 10.7 per cent. in New Brunswick to 65 per cent. in Prince Edward Island; and the average salary of rural elementary teachers ranges from \$551 in Prince Edward Island to \$1,079 in British Columbia.

A very important phase of Canadian rural education is the penetration of the country-side by secondary education. This comes about in two ways. First, the continuation school, as it is called in Ontario, is a small secondary school with from two to five teachers doing the work of secondary schools for at least three or four grades, and in the same cases giving complete courses for matriculation. There are hundreds of these continuation schools in the villages of Ontario. Then every large village or town has a high school or collegiate institute which covers all the academic work of secondary schools and, in many cases, vocational courses as well. The result is that the vast majority of rural families send one or more of their children to a secondary school of some sort. This is true generally throughout Canada, and the influence of this wide-spread rural contact with

secondary education is a factor of great significance in Canadian life.

Teachers and Inspectors

The centre of any educational system is its teaching staff. The nine Canadian provinces insist on fairly high standards for their teachers. The general requirements for elementary teachers are : (1) four years in a secondary school (in Ontario, five years) ; (2) a year's professional training at a normal school or training college, leading up to a temporary provincial certificate ; (3) a permanent certificate after one or two years' successful teaching and the favourable report of a provincial school inspector ; and (4) in Ontario another year of academic study to be taken at a recognised university (extra-murally or intra-murally) before the permanent certificate is granted. There are few (if any) untrained, uncertificated teachers in Canadian schools. The qualifications for the teacher in the remote hamlet are as high as those in the great cities.

The school inspectors are chosen from the ranks of successful teachers of long experience. They must possess special inspectors' certificates as well, based upon courses of study and training especially suited for their duties. Their duties are to see that the Government's regulations are strictly observed, and also to help the teachers with their problems and their difficulties. They are provincial officers with considerable power and, in general, teachers and inspectors co-operate in harmony and goodwill.

The great problem is, of course, to secure permanence in the teaching staff. One great factor here is the establishment of superannuation schemes. Five provinces have superannuation schemes with fairly satisfactory teacher pensions, Ontario leading the way in 1917 with a minimum pension of \$365 and a maximum of \$1,250 after thirty-nine years of service, the teacher contributing $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of his salary, the province supplementing it with another $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Another factor of importance is the development of professional status through teacher organisations. Every one of the nine provinces has a professional teachers' organisation (quite apart from any general educational organisation). These provincial associations are united in the Canadian Teachers' Federation, which, in turn, is a constituent unit in the World Federation of Education Associations. That has this important significance—when a Canadian teacher joins the local section of his provincial teachers' organisation he

automatically becomes a part of the Canadian Teachers' Federation, and through this national body he at once identifies himself with the World Federation of Education Associations. His is a fine continuity from local group through provincial and national to international fellowship, a continuity of which the Canadian teacher is proud.

Special Services

Every country in these days is developing special services in its educational field. These cover (a) the handicapped children, and (b) the neglected children. Children are handicapped physically or mentally. The handicapped physically are of three main classes : (a) the blind or defective in eyesight, (b) the deaf or defective in hearing, and (c) the crippled, and special school provision, as well as after care, is made for all these classes.

For the mentally handicapped, four provinces are preparing specially trained teachers in their normal schools—Nova Scotia, Ontario, Manitoba and Saskatchewan. In Ontario 152 rural training units to deal with such children are now in operation, and four counties have been so fully surveyed that practically every child physically or mentally handicapped is receiving consideration.

The neglected child furnishes a different type of problem. All the provinces make provision for the care of these children. In Ontario an organisation was begun in 1887 to help these children, and in 1893 the Children's Protection Act was placed on the Statute Book. At first the work was financed largely by voluntary aid, but to-day it is chiefly a matter of municipal and provincial expense. The development of children's aid societies with trained inspectors and social workers has become general throughout Canada. The most significant recent trend is to make the shelters for these rescued children merely temporary homes until adoption by foster parents can be secured. Official garbing or uniforms is discarded in the shelters ; the children attend the nearby elementary schools, and every effort is made to give them all the educational facilities of the community.

Auxiliary Agencies

To-day the school is supplemented by educational agencies whose combined influence is very considerable. The public library, for example, is very widely distributed in Ontario, as that province has now over 500 public libraries. Hundreds of these are in small villages and towns, and thousands of

rural families are regular book-borrowers. Several of the other provinces have public library systems. The travelling library is in operation in various provinces. The county library system, with its direct service to rural families, has only two examples, one in British Columbia and one in Prince Edward Island, both financed by the Carnegie Corporation. The school cars in Northern Ontario are equipped with libraries. There is still, however, a great deal to be done in Canada in the extension of library facilities to rural families.

Child and family welfare organisations, national and provincial, are concerned with family problems of food, health and general well-being. Conferences, lectures, bulletins and pamphlets are freely used to disseminate the best in welfare education. The Community Welfare Council of Ontario is conducting a vigorous campaign in organised community recreation. A highly trained leader in rural recreational programmes is giving all her attention to these community projects, and weekly talks on leisure in its many phases and activities are given by leading experts. Women's Institutes were first organised in Ontario in 1897, and to-day the province has 1,150 local Women's Institutes with 40,000 members. These members are chiefly farm and village women who meet to discuss matters of home-making, education and citizenship. These institutes have spread all over Canada, and a few years ago were introduced into the British Isles with gratifying results.

University extension work, in the form of short courses by the provincial Department of Agriculture and the Ontario Agricultural College, and similar institutions in the other provinces, brings to rural communities the best results of the experts in the sciences and arts dealing with farm life, and keeps the rural communities in touch with life abroad.

Other Factors in Rural Life

Modern inventions have affected our rural life tremendously, so that many rural families are as well equipped and served as urban families. The daily mail brings the world to the farmer's door. The telephone links up the families in the neighbourhood and unites them by long-distance communication with continents. The radio in a lonely Northern Saskatchewan farm brings in the Jubilee Services in St. Paul's Cathedral and the King's speeches from Buckingham Palace and Westminster Hall. The motor car and the motor truck give the farmer a connection with his immediate markets and even distant markets and with the

social life of a wide area. The moving picture theatre in the neighbouring village, reached in a few minutes by his automobile, places before the farmer and his family the world's famous 'movie' stars and the world news. The farmer's house and barns are thoroughly equipped with electric light and electric labour-saving devices. Canada's water power is transformed into electric current to supply at low cost thousands of farmers' families with the comforts of modern homes. It is quite true that many rural areas are not yet modernised in this way, but a very considerable proportion of Canadian rural families have all the advantages of rural mail, telephone, motor car, electric equipment, radio and moving pictures. The bearing of all these factors in transforming rural life is obvious.

Conclusion

The picture of rural life and rural education in Canada, as given above, suggests that education is held by Canadians as vital to national welfare. It suggests also that education in Canada is responsive to the modern trends in educational, economic and community activities. It is in a state of constant inspection and adjustment to the needs of the hour. It may also be fairly claimed that it has served the Canadian people with creditable success, and no small part of Canada's political, material, intellectual and spiritual achievement is due to her schools."

The Rural Bias and the Curriculum

G. Faulds (E.I.S.)

"The specific aim of this paper is to attempt a brief glance into the future of rural education; to inquire whether our educational aims, which may have had some justification when the main part of the educational problem was to fit the average person for the work of the average person, are applicable to-day.

Such an inquiry is bound to lead us into the realms of economics, for this thing we call rural-bias is the direct result of an economic urge. You are well aware of the kind of criticism often levelled at the present day education given in our rural schools—that it is too detached from rural life; that it tends to produce black-coated workers rather than manual workers; that it is too urban in its character and tends

to draw the population of the country-side, already dangerously depleted, into the towns ; that rural schools are simply town schools in miniature, whereas the rural schools have wonderful opportunities if only they would draw inspiration from the surrounding Nature and country life. There can, of course, be no question about the use of rural environment in our teaching. Just as the city teacher is bound to draw his illustrations from the content of his pupils, so the rural teacher must make use of the environment of his pupils as the ground work of his teaching.

Such criticism as I have indicated is based partly on ignorance and partly on fear ; ignorance of the history of our primary school curricula, and fear as to the effects of the depletion of the country-side on our food supply.

There is no time to trace in detail the history of our primary school curricula, although it is difficult to explain them without reference to the conditions out of which they arose. Our early elementary schools were merely places where children were taught to read and write and to do simple sums. The original function of the schools was to make the children barely literate. Reading and writing, however, are not ends in themselves ; they are merely means to an end ; but the elementary school tradition unfortunately gave them a dominant position.

It is interesting to note the suggestions of the Board of Education on this subject of bias. 'They consider it of great importance that the teaching in rural schools should be associated closely with the environment of the children ; for various reasons it appears desirable at the present time to emphasise the principle that the education given in rural schools should be intimately related to rural conditions of life. The Board do not suggest that rural elementary schools should teach agriculture or attempt to give a vocational training. Like other schools, they should give a general education based on environment.' To all of which we can heartily agree. There is nothing in the Board's suggestions which suggest a rural bias, with its accompanying inferiority complex. Meantime, like other schools, whether in town or country, rural schools should give a general education based on environment.

In this connection I was pleased to note that the Chairman of the Scottish Sub-Council for School Broadcasting, a leading Glasgow educationist with a lengthy experience in administration, in his foreword to a pamphlet issued recently, held this view. The sub-council has had a committee

inquiring into the special needs of rural schools and the special difficulties attending the use of broadcast lessons in the rural classroom. As a result of this investigation a number of new elements have been introduced into the junior courses, and two new junior courses have been planned with a special view to the interests of the country child and the circumstances of the country school. The Chairman adds: 'There is no reason, however, why they should not be of almost equal interest to town schools,' and after going over the notes on the courses, I should omit the 'almost.'

Thus far the economic aspect has played no part in this discussion, but in dealing with the fear in the minds of our critics as to the effects of the depletion of the country-side on our food supply, it is impossible in a changing world to ignore it. I might quote figures relating to the percentage of boys who find employment on the land, but these figures would give little indication regarding the future. We know that, generally, employment is decreasing—more rapidly, no doubt, in the industrial centres than in the country—but we may not realise that the cause is similar in both cases—the displacement of human labour by the machine; the introduction of labour-saving devices which fulfil their function in so far as they do actually save labour. The engineer knows, and needs no further proof, that technological improvements, if allowed full scope, could greatly increase present output with a gradually diminishing demand on human labour. In the field of agriculture, great strides have been made in mechanical harvesting. Threshers, reapers, combines, tractors, have replaced the man with the scythe, and each year brings further improvements and new devices. Even the cotton crop, it is interesting to note, has at last succumbed. For eighty years men have tried to build a serviceable machine for harvesting cotton, but the problem seemed insuperable. To-day the cotton crop is harvested exactly as it was when Whitney invented his cotton-gin—by negroes moving between the rows of plants. A machine has, however, been invented which, in $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours, gathers as much cotton as a diligent hand-picker gathers in an eleven week season.

Now, as educationists, we may agree to differ as to the best method of distributing the product of the machine—we may leave the solution of that part of the problem to the politician—but we cannot but take cognisance of the fact that a new set of circumstances exists which demands a re-orientation of our educational aims and ideals. To

attempt to find agreement on any clean-cut definition of our present aims in education would be futile as such a definition depends largely on our general view of life. There are the advocates of the vocational aim in education, of education for complete living, of education for citizenship, of education for individuality and a host of others. Amid the multiplicity of definitions, perhaps the largest share of agreement could be found for Herbert Spencer's definition of education as a preparation for complete living. No doubt he over-emphasised the word preparation—and as for the complete living—well, we may construe that as we wish.

There was a time, not so long ago, when the working life of the average person was divided into two parts—work and relaxation or play. The hours of work were so long and the work so monotonous that the brief period of relaxation was apt to be one of artificial and illusory happiness. Our chief aim in education was to fit our pupils for the work that lay ahead—the relaxation could very well take care of itself. But now, as I have attempted to show, the position is tending to be reversed. As the use of mechanical inventions spreads, the hours of labour become fewer and the margin of respite from labour is corresponding wider. To millions of unemployed in every country, it is all margin, and, next to the security of peaceful international relations, the problem of how that margin is to be spent is the most urgent problem of our time. The only possible answer, it seems to me, is that to the two categories of work and play there must be added a third—the best name for which is leisure. The distinction is not new, it was made by Aristotle nearly twenty-three centuries ago and it needs to be revived. But we must beware of our vocabulary; we must realise that leisure is by no means the same thing as idleness. Idleness may be defined as the opposite of over-work; leisure as the opportunity for voluntary work. Those of us who have given some thought to the subject are well aware of the fears the already leisured class have on the subject of the extension of leisure—there is the fear that they will lose their present privileges and the fear that the masses will make a bad use of their leisure. If, however, as the orthodox argue, people are incapable of spending their leisure properly, surely it is because they have had so little to practise on and have had no training in its proper use. This then is our job: the foundation of an education largely for leisure must be laid in our primary schools. Our curricula will need adjustments;

they must include those subjects which will serve the ends of well-spent leisure. But this is much too wide a subject to attempt to discuss at the tail end of this paper. If your interest has been aroused, you will find much food for serious thought in the deliberations of the First Regional British Isles Conference of the New Education Fellowship, which opens to-day at St. Andrews, under the presidency of the Master of Balliol, and which has as its theme, 'Education and Leisure—how to create a democratic culture.'

Now, as to our ultimate goal, in the words of Commander Stephen King-Hall, 'it should be some form of world unity in which war has been banished and replaced by the rule of law; a world in which men's wants are also their effective demands; a world in which all men are leisured and in which the body-keeping business absorbs a negligible proportion of their thoughts and energies.' The task is principally one of education. These things can be done if man wishes to do them."

Mr. T. F. Frisby (Ireland) said: "When we realise that education is a life-long process to which the instruction of our school days can be no more than an introduction and a guide, we cannot fail to appreciate the desirability of having school programmes closely related to the normal lives and avocations of the pupils.

Our systems are too bookish. Abstractism does not constitute a comprehensive education and the abstract tendency is becoming more pronounced every day. Programmes that are not associated with the facts, traditions and circumstances of local life are quite as injurious to real education, particularly in the primary stage, as in the absurd system of external examinations, by which the value of the educational work of teachers is attempted to be measured.

The obvious subject for giving a rural bias to the curriculum of primary schools is natural science. Apart from being a most effective and concrete medium of intellectual development, it brings the pupils into direct relationship with their lives and surroundings. The subject, however, should have no vocational aim, nor should it have any economic bearing, and no attempt should be made to introduce agriculture or gardening into a natural science course.

In the Irish Free State so much of the pupils' time is being given to the revival of the native language that it has been found expedient to take some subjects, including natural science, off the programme for the time being. The great

aim of our system is to create a bi-lingual people. Irish has become the teaching medium for all subjects in very many of our schools, such schools are placed in a special category, entry to which is given to schools in which the teachers are fully qualified in giving, and the pupils capable of receiving instruction through Irish.

In Ireland there is a uniform scale of salaries for teachers so that every teacher is free from financial considerations in taking up work either in urban or rural schools. We believe that the country boy or girl is as entitled to the same quality of education as urban and town children.

A teacher so inclined, irrespective of programmes, can give a rural bias to any school subject. He can do much to create a sound social order that should help to keep the people on the land—a policy very desirable in every country to-day."

The Place of Rural Education in the Recovery Programme of the U.S.A.

**Miss S. Powers (Department of Rural Education,
National Education Association, U.S.A.)**

"I am to discuss with you for a few minutes the educational outlook for country districts in America—a changing education for an age that is experiencing great change, especially social and economic readjustment. There are many difficulties in attempting to talk about education in general in a country that is so large and must necessarily have many widely differing interests. For instance, the warm agricultural South looks at life from a somewhat different angle from the colder manufacturing north-east or the north-west. In our country the forty-eight States carry on separate educational systems with still further smaller units unlike in organisation. Since I cannot give you a picture of the country as a whole I shall touch upon just a few things that seem important and may be of general interest.

In a democracy the education of all the people for participation in their government is of first consideration. The builders of our nation recognised this foundation principle of democratic institutions and began very early to establish schools of preparatory and college levels. There were many academies and colleges founded early. I come from the State

of Tennessee—which has a university two years older than the State. But the development of the public school system with its elementary schools, high schools, and colleges, followed later and of course continues to make changes as the life of each age makes adjustments necessary.

Unusual developments have been undertaken by our government, especially in the past three years, to reclaim certain lands and to retire other vast tracts less desirable for people to live upon. Such areas are being converted into forests, which certainly should mean much to future generations. The whole plan seems simple and sensible—to induce people to abandon lands that produce little and move to places better suited to production. Then there are other reclamation projects where the lands were abandoned because of lack of drainage or other natural handicaps. Such places are being made ready for habitation again through the work of Government engineers and other workmen. Perhaps the greatest development project and the one that should touch the lives of the people in the open country most directly is that of the Tennessee Valley authority. It is not only designed to carry out the principle underlying other government projects, but will make available electric power at rates within the ability of people to pay.

The good roads which have been constructed during the past ten or fifteen years have removed many barriers that prevented better living in the country. The telephone and then the radio add still further to its opportunities. Now, if electric power can be made available for the rural areas with the modern conveniences that cities enjoy, it seems to me that there should be a new day indeed in the life of country people.

With new meaning given to rural development there must be an enlarged educational programme to train the citizens who are to carry on the development of country life in this age of great scientific discoveries. What are some of the things that should be given first place in schools? May I answer that question by asking another? Have we ever known exactly what subjects to require children to study? Since we will all agree that there is room for many differences of opinion it is rather safe to make a few suggestions:

1. I think the health of people is important and should be taught in all schools a little more definitely as a subject of study and much more definitely in daily emphasis upon and practice of health habits.

2. Nature study in the lower grades and biology, physics and chemistry, including food studies, as given in home economics classes with the older children. We would do well to begin early to teach a knowledge of the world in which we live, and to that knowledge appreciation will be added.

3. Government. I am interested in teaching the principles of our Government and other governments to all children. The programme of international relations of the Junior Red Cross fits well into such a programme.

4. Music is a part of life and I want every country school to have a place for music—with great choruses and orchestras and bands. Many delegates to this convention come from countries that have a longer background of musical training and appreciation than we have in our country. The same can be said of art as a subject.

5. I am interested in a wider range of vocational subjects with more definite guidance. This would include agriculture, home economics, different types of shop work with handicrafts. I am not certain how far we can go, but I am sure that it satisfies many desires to be able to create things, and I am not mistaken in saying that it is necessary for large numbers to learn the types of skills by which a living may be earned. I should like to see work so well done that it loses something of drudgery in the joy of the results accomplished.

6. There is no reason why the arts and sciences should be of less interest to country people than to their city cousins. The academic subjects should be emphasised and taught just as thoroughly. Where in all the world could poetry be taught as well or literature better? A child reads about woodlands and streams too often and looks out upon crowded streets. On the other hand, a lesson on manufacturing might have a better interpretation in the city schools. Of course, neither country nor city has a monopoly upon all the opportunities for situations that lend themselves to ideal teaching. We are real teachers only when we give the broadest possible scope to our work as teachers.

As time goes on it remains to be seen just how far the new movements materialise into practical possibilities for a greater

and better country life, and just how far-reaching the new scientific developments may extend themselves into country as well as city improvements.

Do you know of any reason why the children in school and the people in general should not be able to turn a little dial and listen to the great music and other programmes from your countries and mine? Never have I felt the meaning of 'universal' as understandingly as on last Christmas morning when the broadcast was given by the British Empire. I sat in a home in Tennessee and heard the entire broadcast, including the words spoken by the King. In like manner the great programmes of other countries come to us from day to day across the continents by air currents controlled by the genius of man. The education of the future, be it rural or urban, cannot overlook this great educational service of our generation. The moving pictures have perhaps even greater educational possibilities, and in the years just ahead are destined to play an important part in the teaching of rural children. If electrical power can be distributed so that schools may use power driven machines for instructional service, it will indeed be a new day for education in rural sections, especially when costs can be held to a low level.

The most important service any superintendent can render is in the selection of teachers of character and broad training. We shall make progress in training for worthy citizenship in proportion to the types of teachers to whom the children are entrusted. The selection of teachers must remain the major service of school officials together with the opportunities given them for the highest types of service they are capable of rendering."

Rural Education in Italy

Dott. Giovanni Scanga (Director of Secondary Technical Education in Italy).

"In the field of rural education the Fascist Government introduced reforms tending :

(1) to raise the standard of agricultural training so as to give it the same social value as that provided by all other schools of the same grade and duration ;

(2) to give the pupils an adequate general education ;

(3) to constitute homogeneous groups of schools specifying the task to be accomplished by each ;

(4) to establish a direct passage from the elementary schools which in Italy provide general culture and which last five years, to the agricultural schools ;

(5) to provide the possibility to continue rural training and promote pupils to higher courses ;

(6) to develop specialisation intended to complete general agricultural training ;

(7) to grant these schools all possible administrative and didactic autonomy.

Rural education in Italy is provided by :

(1) Schools of a pre-professional character called *Secondary Schools of technical agricultural training*, following immediately the five years elementary schools.

(2) *Technical Agricultural Schools* giving technical instruction of a theoretical and practical character.

(3) *Technical Agricultural Institutes*, providing a course similar to that of higher secondary education and preparing future agricultural experts and teachers.

All these schools have their special regulations and curricula, as well as special curricula and rules for the provision of the teaching staff.

In Italy, rural education is considered as mass education. Hence its high importance."

Rural Education in Spain

El Señor Sanmastin (Palencia Castile ; Inspector of Elementary Schools in a Rural Area).

" The Spanish people is pre-eminently a rural one. The condition of the people is deplorable and the condition of the rural schools is a reflection of this misery and at the same time conditions it.

(1) *The Schools* are practically all miserable, unhygienic, without light, ventilation or sanitary conditions. All are one-roomed. The furniture and apparatus have not been renewed in these past fifty years and are insufficient.

Pupils from six to fourteen years of age are all under one teacher, who has four sections at one time to teach.

The group may consist of 100 children or even over, but the teacher is only allowed 147 pesetas (present rate of exchange, £4) for books, pencils, ink, etc., and cleaning and heating.

(2) *The Teachers* are poorly paid. More than fifty per cent. get 237 pesetas a month, less than the *Guardie Civil* (government police of military character), who earn at the least 300 pesetas a month and have no need of specialised training at all. As a result of this miserable salary they are unable to travel, buy books, or make contact with colleagues. This produces a petrification.

(3) But worst of all is the state of *the Children*. 'This is by far the most serious problem. On account of the parents' poverty the children are kept at home to help in the work and during the spring sowing and the harvest no children over ten are ever in school. Schools of 100 rarely have more than fifteen children present in these seasons. In winter, on the other hand, the schools are overcrowded with children, for although the schools are insufficiently heated they are warmer than their homes. Even so, it is so cold that they keep their hands under their coats. As can be imagined, although the official curriculum contains reading, writing, arithmetic, geometry, grammar, history, geography, civics, natural science and handwork, the teacher finds it difficult in these conditions to teach even reading and writing owing to the prolonged absences of the children.

The problem, therefore, of the rural schools is very complex. It is not pedagogic but economic and social. How then can it be solved? The following suggestions are primary needs:

(i) Building new schools and pulling down ninety per cent. of the old.

(ii) Renewing the old furniture and apparatus. There are now only big tables for use.

(iii) Increased salaries to teachers and decreasing their isolation by centres of collaboration, where they can meet fortnightly or monthly from numerous different villages. Also short refresher courses lasting a week should be provided. This has already been tried and teachers have paid their own expenses and responded with great

enthusiasm. Organising visits to other schools should be tried out.

(iv) Interesting parents in school problems by making Associations of Friends of the School. This has already been tried, but the Government does not encourage it, as parents immediately demanded better conditions.

The republic made a few attempts to better conditions, and even increased the salaries, which were lower than they now are, although in the last few months a ten per cent. cut has been made again. But it is unable to do more through unwillingness to spend money, and local authorities do not consider it necessary as they are in a position to send their own children to better schools in the towns.

It is my profound conviction that these grave problems of the rural school will only be solved when the social and economic regime is changed. When the conditions of life of the Spanish peasants are improved then only will the rural schools be able to fulfil their educational function."

The Problem of Rural Education in Mexico

Professor Miguel Arroyo de la Parra (National School of Teachers of Mexico)

"The change effected in rural education in Mexico holds an importance beyond the political frontiers of my country. What I say of Mexico can be held roughly to apply to the whole of Latin America.

During the thirty-three years of President Porfirio Díaz's dictatorship, the population was in a state of profound ignorance. In 1900, 74 per cent. of the population were illiterate.

But still, to-day, 60 per cent. of the population—despite the efforts of the masses in these last years, which forced the Government to make a few minor reforms—remain illiterate. There has only been a 14 per cent. decrease.

Of three-and-a-half million children of school age, only 1,900,000 attend school, and 1,570,000 are without instruction.

The majority of these come from rural areas, where the problem is most acute.

The actual Mexican Government has a six-year plan for the building of 12,000 schools in rural areas. But as the

carrying out of this plan depends on the Government's financial resources, and the Government has no assurance of an increase in its income, it will fall to pieces if any worsening of economic and trade conditions occurs.

At this time Mexican educationalists are fighting for an increased Budget allowance for Education, in order to open new schools, and increase salaries. The school teachers knowing that this can only occur with a corresponding decrease in the war budget allowance, are demanding such decrease."



[Facing: *Alley (Oxford)*

THE MARTYRS' MEMORIAL (1841)

SECONDARY SECTION AND SEVENTEENTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF
SECONDARY EDUCATION

and

ORGANISING COMMITTEE OF THE
SEVENTEENTH INTERNATIONAL CON-
GRESS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

President : MISS A. R. MORISON, Francis Holland School,
Graham Street, London, S.W.1.

Secretary-General : L. C. BUURVELD, Boergoensche v Liet
154, Rotterdam-Zuid, Holland.

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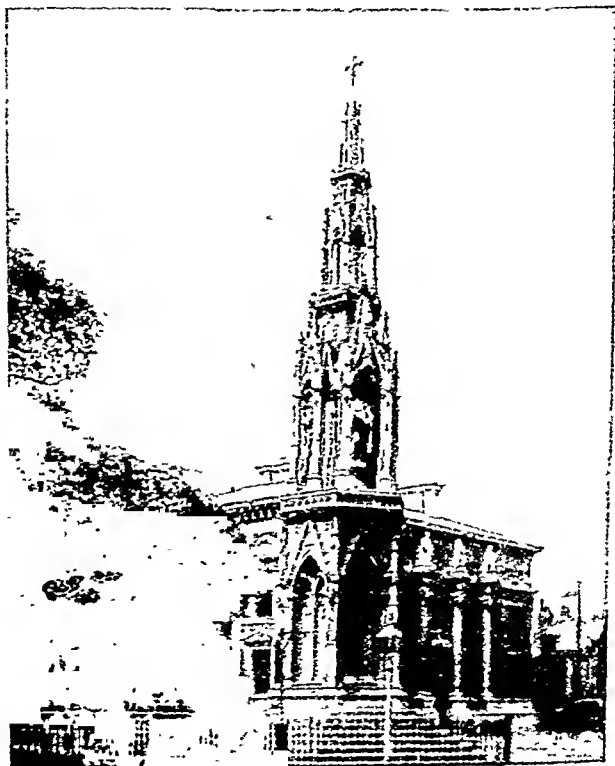
HEAD MISTRESSES' ASSOCIATION.

MISS M. DAVIES, County Secondary School, Welham
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(Photo: Alden (Oxford))

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HEAD MASTERS' ASSOCIATION.

DR. VAUGHAN, The Manor House, Princes Risborough,
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ASSISTANT MASTERS' ASSOCIATION.

A. S. TREVES, 3, Church Walk, Oxford.

G. D. DUNKERLEY, 29, Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.

Place of Meeting : RHODES HOUSE.

[The meetings of the Secondary Section were combined with the public sessions of the International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers.]

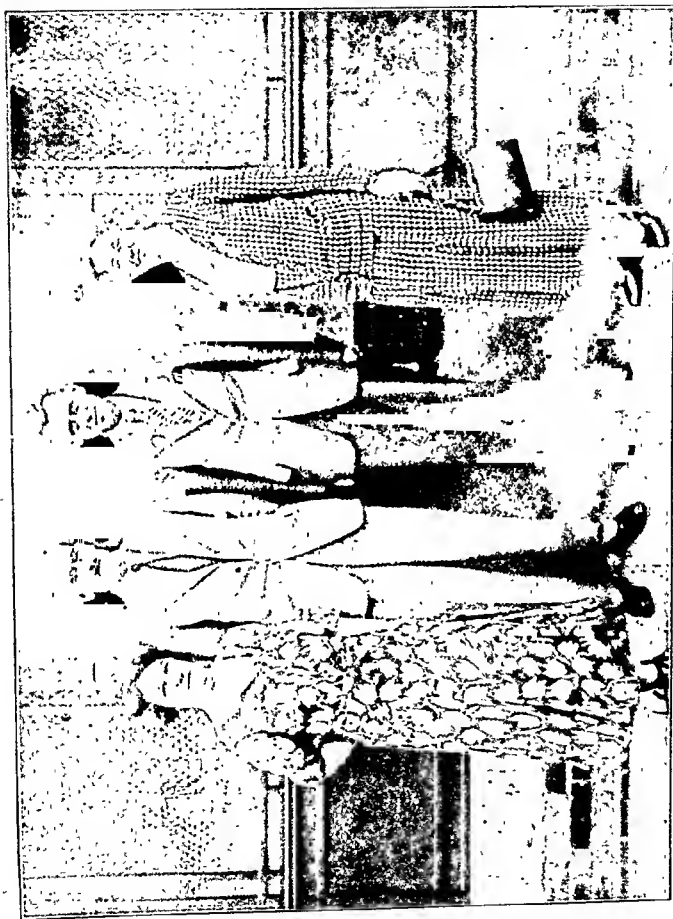
FIRST SESSION.

Twenty-eight Secondary Teachers' Organisations in twenty European countries sent delegates to attend the Seventeenth Annual Congress held under the presidency of Miss A. R. MORISON, of London. A number of representatives appointed by their respective Governments were also present. In addition, the synchronised character of the Congress made possible the attendance of teachers from the Dominions, the United States of America, and from India, China and Japan.

The subject chosen at the Rome Congress of 1934 for discussion in 1935 was, "The Principles and Conditions Governing Admission to Secondary Schools."

Reliability of Entrance Examinations

After the President had welcomed the delegates and members, the following address was given by Mr. F. R. G. Duckworth (H.M. Chief Inspector of Secondary Schools) : "The subject with which I have to deal is so very complex and difficult and so wide in its range that I propose to confine my attention only to those examinations for which local education authorities are responsible, and, within that area, only to one or two points with which I happen to have been rather specially preoccupied in the last year.



MEMBERS OF I.F.A.S.T. EXECUTIVE

Mlle. S. COLLETTE (FRANCE), Mr. G. R. PARKER (ENGLAND), M. L. C. BUURVELD (HOLLAND),
AND Miss A. R. MORISON, *President* (ENGLAND)

Since this is a gathering of teachers from many lands, I suppose that I ought to begin by reminding myself that in this country we have decentralised the control of education and that there is no one authority which prescribes the form to be taken by the examinations which govern admission to secondary schools. One important consequence of this decentralisation is that there is a very wide variety of types of examination, but still there are certain features which are common to a very large number of these examinations.

One might say, for example, that the subjects of instruction generally selected for examination are English and Arithmetic. The examination in English includes, as a rule, the writing of a composition. Generally there are arrangements for preventing the age of a candidate from counting either too much or too little in his favour. It has been found, as I suppose everybody here is aware, that an extra six months at school between the ages of ten and eleven usually gives a candidate of eleven years and nine months a considerable advantage over one of eleven years and three months. In addition to that, in the type of examination that I have in mind (so far as we can distinguish types) some attempt is made to take into account the opinions of the teachers in primary schools as to the suitability of the candidates who are sent up for this examination.

The task is essentially one of selecting suitable material for secondary schools, and it is in that aspect that these examinations have, for the most part, been considered, but I think that attention is now being turned more than it has been in the past to the effect that these examinations are having upon the primary schools.

Before attempting to find the answer to the question as to what is the effect upon primary schools, one has to remember the tremendously increased demand for secondary education in this country which has developed since the War, because that means that the competition for places in secondary schools has become very fierce indeed in certain parts of the country. One has to remember that, taking the country as a whole, it is (I think I am right in saying) about one child in every seven children of a given age who is going to find admission to a secondary school. Now taking what I described just now as the normal type of entrance examination, a serious consequence follows from this fierce spirit of competition, namely, that a good deal of pressure is bound to be exercised upon the primary school to do two things : first, to pay rather particular attention to the two subjects of

instruction which are measured in this examination, i.e., English and Arithmetic; secondly, in some cases, at any rate, to provide special preparation for the more promising pupils in the form, it may be, of extra lessons or extra coaching. To that special preparation a name sanctified by long usage has been given; it is generally called cramming. I do not say that that practice is universal; it certainly is not so. Competition is not equally fierce in every part of the country. Then, again, there is a great number of primary teachers who have the courage and the strength of mind to resist the temptation to cram their pupils when cramming is likely to be harmful. But there is the temptation and there is the pressure from parents who are desperately anxious that their children should be admitted, and, so long as there are that temptation and that pressure, there is obviously the danger of perhaps undue attention being given to one side of the curriculum of the primary schools. That curriculum may suffer some degree of distortion, in so far as, let us say, English and Arithmetic receive such attention that other kinds of activities, perhaps more profitable to the bulk of the pupils may come to be neglected. The simplest way to remove this danger would be to eliminate the competition by providing a sufficient number of secondary schools to take in all the children who wish to enter them. But I am afraid that is not very likely to happen, at any rate for some years to come. Whatever may be the arguments for or against it, the fact remains that entrance to secondary schools is a matter of selecting, and that fact is likely to remain for the present.

The other obvious remedy is to provide an examination as will defeat the crammer, as will remove the temptation to give special preparation and so forth because that special preparation will be of no avail. I am afraid, so far as I can understand from talking to a large number of people who have long experience in the conduct of these examinations, that the chance of anybody being able to devise a test of attainment in English or arithmetic which will be completely proof against special preparation is very slender indeed, but to some extent the evil can be and is mitigated by the questions in the two subjects, for example, that I have mentioned being so framed that they will not make demands such as cannot reasonably be met by the average pupil of say eleven years old in a primary school. Some examining authorities have, I think achieved a fair measure of success in that direction. But I am not quite sure how far it is

realised that, in order to make certain that a question does not demand more than can reasonably be demanded, it is really necessary to try it out in another area. Incidentally I might remark that our system of decentralising the control of these examinations makes it particularly easy for one examining authority to try experiments in the area of another examining authority, and that practice is perhaps rather on the increase, though I think it could be, with great advantage developed to a much larger extent.

Perhaps the question may be asked : Is it not possible to eliminate the examination in English and Arithmetic ? As a matter of fact, that has been done in one part of the country where the examination, I believe, consists almost entirely of an intelligence test. Here I approach a very hot corner indeed, and I shall proceed to execute a lateral movement ! All I want to say about intelligence tests is this. First of all, the opposition to them is clearly far less formidable than it was, let us say, ten years ago. I think it is true that more and more examining bodies are introducing the intelligence test as a part, at any rate, of their entrance examination. The opposition to the tests comes, to some extent, from people who have very little acquaintance with them and who, on this or that ground, believe that intelligence is not susceptible of exact measurement. Perhaps it is unfortunate that these tests ever received the name of intelligence tests, because no two people, so far as I have been able to discover, seem to understand the same thing by the word 'intelligence.'

There are only two other remarks that I feel tempted to make on this occasion about intelligence tests, but I think they are important, although they may be obvious. The first is that where intelligence tests are used they should be properly standardised tests and the administration of them should be in skilled hands. Where those two conditions are not observed—and I have come across instances in which they are not observed—intelligence tests certainly do far more harm than good. The second remark I want to make about them is that, even if all the doubts entertained by serious thinkers with regard to intelligence tests could be removed, I am not at all sure that one could, at any rate at present, accept them as the sole criterion. I think there are several reasons for that, but one of the more obvious reasons is that they do not set out to measure anything but certain intellectual potentialities. I am dealing now with tests so constructed that one might expect them to defeat the object of the crammer, the person who gives special preparation, or

of the person who has perhaps slightly distorted the curriculum in his primary school. That leads me on to the only other criterion which would seem to be in any degree proof against the insidious, nefarious activities of the examiner, and that is the opinion of the primary teacher. Some people have maintained that the business of selecting children for admission into a secondary school should be handed over entirely to the teachers in the primary schools. Far more people who have studied the matter are agreed that the judgment of a wise and experienced primary teacher is very much more reliable than any examination which is known to us at present. Among the people who hold that opinion I could name one or two highly distinguished psychologists who have had a great deal to do, for instance, with the administration of all kinds of tests, including intelligence tests and objective tests of attainment. As a matter of fact, some evidence on this point as to the reliability of the primary teacher's judgment accrues from some investigations carried out quite recently by a group of my colleagues, and, at the risk of taking up more of your time than I am entitled to take up, I would venture to say a word or two about that subject.

The investigation was carried out on the following lines: A written examination and an intelligence test were devised to be administered to 10,000 children in primary schools. A great deal of care was taken in the drawing up of the questions. They were previously tried out in an extra-metropolitan borough, and the questions were modified, added to or deleted, in accordance with the experience gained there. The intelligence test was a standardised Moray House test. Before the written examination and the intelligence test were taken by these 10,000 children, the head teacher of every primary school which submitted candidates was asked to arrange his candidates in an order of merit according to their presumed fitness to profit by the education in a secondary school. The written examination and the intelligence test were then taken, marks were given, and an order of merit was drawn up on the combined written examination and intelligence test. That order of merit was then compared, for each school, with the ranking or order of merit drawn up by the head teacher.

I am not going to give you a large number of figures which it might be difficult to remember, but the following points are perhaps worth noting. The two orders of merit were compared by means of a correlation formula, and it was found that 17.9 per cent. of the cases compared gave a

correlation of .9 or better than .9; 46.3 per cent. gave a correlation of .8 or better than .8, and only 9 per cent. gave a correlation of the order of .5 or less than .5. The next stage was that it was decided to pretend that this examination had actually been used to govern the admissions to a secondary school, and lists were made out of the pupils who would have been admitted if it really had been such an examination. Those lists again were compared with the rankings of the head teachers. In this case also it would take me too long to give you complete details, because a very large number of schools was involved, but, out of a particular batch of 720 children who had been ranked first or second by their primary teachers, 600 would have gained admission to a secondary school. Speaking generally and leaving details aside, the primary rankings agreed very much better than had been expected, I think, by anybody, with the order of merit of the written part of the examination.

Another point which is worth noting is this, that the teachers who were asked to rank their children had never attempted anything of that kind before; they had not had practice or training in the matter.

Supposing that we had wanted to govern admissions to secondary schools wholly by the ranking and to cut out the written part of the examination altogether, what could have been done? You come at once into this very obvious and familiar difficulty; if you take Tommy Brown who comes from primary school 'A,' and you find that he has been put by his primary school teachers as No. 1 on their list, and if you take also John Smith, who is first on the list of school 'B,' how are you going to compare those two? You know, let us suppose, that school 'B' has, as a matter of fact, a much larger number of really intelligent and promising pupils than school 'A,' and you can feel fairly certain that Tommy Brown, who is first on the school 'A,' list, would not have been first on the list of school 'B,' but where exactly he would have been on the list of school 'B' it is almost impossible to say. That is the first problem in handing over the whole business of selection to the teachers in the primary schools, and it is very hard to see how it can be overcome. Obviously there are other very great difficulties in the way of handing over the whole business of selection to the primary teachers. But, short of handing over the whole business to them, I think that nearly everybody nowadays is agreed that far more weight ought to be given to the primary teachers' opinion than is given as a

rule. 'There is, I think, a very wide agreement on that point, and all that is happening now is that people are casting about for really effective ways of doing that. 'There are one or two devices for translating the primary teacher's estimate into marks which can affect the final order of merit on the rest of the examination. None of them has been really adequate, and I have to confess that I have no solution of the problem which I can propose at the moment, but I am certainly not without hope that a solution can be found. There is a number of people at the present moment, including some colleagues of mine, who are trying out various methods in different parts of the country, and I think that there is a very good hope that some means will be discovered before long of enabling more weight to be given to the judgment of the primary teacher.

I should like to emphasise one point which perhaps I ought to have dwelt upon before. The primary teacher's estimate, I think, will almost certainly be based not only on the boy's intellectual potentialities or attainments (if I may be forgiven the word 'intellectual'), but also on the degree to which he shows that he has other qualities necessary for success in a secondary school. That is extremely important. We realise now, and I suppose we have always realised, that it is not only that elusive quality called intelligence that counts, but that certain other qualities, which some people call moral qualities, are also important if the child is to get the full benefit of the education which a secondary school provides. Of those other qualities, moral qualities or, if you like to call them so, temperamental qualities, no test, so far as I understand, which is even as satisfactory as the intelligence test has yet been discovered, although a good many tests have been investigated.

I began these remarks with a consideration of the influence of the entrance examination upon the work in the primary school, and I have been considering various means which might or might not be possible for preventing that influence from being harmful, or preventing the risk of its being harmful, and I have suggested, directly or by implication, that there is much to be said for continued investigation into the possibilities of intelligence tests and of school reports, but in dealing with that point I have also implied certain things with regard to the reliability of different tests, and perhaps I might be allowed to trespass on your patience for a minute or two longer in order to say one or two things about this question of reliability.

Roughly speaking, the reliability of an examination in this context might be taken, I suppose, to mean its capacity for giving you two readings, as it were, which will be true readings, which will indicate something constant. That is the test of the examination considered as a measure, and the problems arising out of that are as familiar as they are difficult. How far can you be sure that an examination, however perfectly devised in itself, taken once and once only, let us say on 5th and 6th April, 1935, can be regarded as reliable? Can you be sure that, if that very same examination had been taken by the very same children not on 5th and 6th April, 1935, but on 5th and 6th May, 1935, the children would be arranged in the same order of merit? Or, supposing that you devised two examinations, equal in difficulty and of a similar type, and gave one of them in April and the other in May, how far could you be sure that on both occasions the children would come out in the same order? I think it would be a very bold man who would say of any examination with which I am acquainted that, administered on two occasions to the same children, it would give the same results. Doubts certainly have been entertained on this head. I do not know how far in other countries any attempt has been made to measure that kind of reliability in an examination—the reliability of what one might call a one-shot or a snapshot examination—but in this country quite recently, by the same group of colleagues to whom I referred just now, some investigation has been attempted of this problem.

The investigation was carried out with the help of Professor Godfrey Thompson and of the Director of Education of one of the extra-metropolitan boroughs. It began with the construction of a number of attainment tests which, as far as could possibly be secured, were of equal difficulty, and these were taken at intervals of four months during the whole of one school year, that is to say, there were three of these tests taken at intervals of four months, by 1,700 children between the ages of ten and eleven. If the whole of those examinations had been treated as though they were an instrument for selecting out of those 1,700 children 106 for admission to secondary schools, 61 boys and 55 girls, the results would have been as follows. (I shall speak of success in the examinations as passing the examinations.) If you looked at the lists of marks that were produced as the result of these multiple tests, to find out to what extent the same children passed each time, you would find that 40 boys passed

each time, 18 boys passed twice, and 27 boys passed once only. Therefore, out of the 61 who would have been selected for admission on these combined three tests, you can say that on the average 40 would have been what you might call dead certainties, 12 would probably have been good choices, and 9 would have been doubtful choices. Of the 55 girls, 28 would have been dead certainties, 16 good choices and 9 doubtfuls.

Summing up, one could say that, even on this careful multiple test, it is only in respect of 66 per cent. of the boys and 50 per cent. of the girls that there is any certainty that the children ultimately selected were undoubtedly right choices, that in respect of 20 per cent. of the girls and 15 per cent. of the boys the selected candidates would have consisted of children who, judged by one of such tests, would have failed; 20 per cent. of the girls and 15 per cent. of the boys would not have gained admission to secondary schools if they had had only one test instead of three tests.

I am not going to labour that point any further. I think I have said enough to show that, to put it mildly, it does cast some doubt upon the reliability of a single examination.

There are just two things which I might say in bringing my remarks to a close. The first is that the more I study the problem the more I am baffled by its complexity and the more convinced I become of my own ignorance. Secondly, I have arrived at the conclusion that, since it is not only I who feel baffled and ignorant, it will obviously be a long time before we can find a satisfactory solution, under present conditions, of the problem which we have been considering, and I believe that, while the different points with which I have been dealing, and other similar points, will have to be considered very closely by people of experience in this matter of examining, there is one piece of work which could be done profitably not only in this country, I venture to suggest, but in almost any other country, and which in this country certainly has been neglected—that is, the very simple business of following up the successful and the unsuccessful pupils in their subsequent careers, whether in secondary schools or in other schools. That is really the important thing. What we want to devise is not a logically beautiful structure which will satisfy the æsthetic susceptibilities of the statisticians, but something which will really work, and it does not matter in a sense how untidy it may be or even how illogical it may seem to be. We want to find out what is working better and what is working worse, and, when we have found that, I

think we shall have some guarantee that we can go ahead with a certain degrec of confidence."

This was followed by an address by Monsieur C. M. Garnier (Inspecteur-Général de l'Instruction Publique, France), who said :

"M. le Ministre de l'Education Nationale ma' chargé d'apporter son salut cordial au nouveau Président du *Board of Education*, Mr. Oliver Stanley, et d'exprimer son estime et ses encouragements au XVII^e Congrès international de l'Enseignement secondaire. Il ne l'a pas fait sans donner une pensée aux prédecesseurs du présent Ministre qui restent associés avec Oxford, c'est à dire à l'honorable Mr. Fisher, Warden of New College, et au très honorable Vicomte Halifax, que nous retrouvons Chancelier de l'Universite d'Oxford. Après avoir, durant des années, gouverné l'Inde,—un empire—il règne à present sur la République des lettres, sur cette cité d'Oxford, qui, par ses évocations du passé, par la valeur académique et sociale de ses sanctions, par le réseau de ses conférences et de ses examens d'extension rayonne sur tout le royaume et constitue à elle seule tout un monde. Puisque j'ai eu l'honneur de participer au XIV^e de vos Congrès, Messieurs, vous trouverez naturel que je revienne an instant en arrière et que je m'applique à enchaîner.

En 1932, la préoccupation de l'heure était l'école unique et son signe matériel la gratuité de l'Enseignement secondaire. Bien qu'elle ne fût pas complètement réalisée—elle n'eut son plein effet que l'année d'après—on pouvait déjà prévoir quelques-unes de ses conséquences, à savoir l'accroissement des effectifs, la limitation du nombre et par suite la sélection.

"Déjà, pouvais-je dire alors, les lycées des grandes villes débordent et le personnel malgré tout son dévouement, plie sous le fardeau. Il y faudra mille précautions. La Maison du Secondaire devra présenter divers paliers pour y accéder comme pour en sortir, mais aussi pour y rentrer."

Ainsi, il y a trois ans nous ne nous étions, ni les uns ni les autres, dissimulé les difficultés du problème. Depuis lors, la crise économique s'est généralisée et les difficultés financières se sont fortement accrues.

Le problème de pédagogie s'est compliqué d'un problème d'argent. Le Ministère de l'Education Nationale n'a pas ses coudées franches. Cela ne l'empêche pas d'accorder toute son attention à la question des classes pléthoriques, la

première qui, si vous le voulez bien, nous retiendra cet après-midi. Cette question est grave. Elle pèse lourdement sur la réforme de l'Ecole Unique ; elle en entrave les développements normaux. Elle préoccupe au premier chef tous les dirigeants de l'Education Nationale, et notamment les hommes politiques qui en ont conçu et préconisé la synthèse et la refonte. Comme vous le savez, l'enseignement secondaire n'a rien à redouter de leurs intentions : loin de primariser le Secondaire, il s'agirait plutôt de secondariser le Primaire. Ils sont tous représentants émissents de la vieille culture classique. Leur attachement à la culture désintéressé, qui est la tradition et l'honneur de l'Enseignement secondaire, demeure intact et toujours agissant. Aux noms de M. Edouard Herriot, docteur *honoris causa* de l'Université d'Oxford, et de M. de Menzie, il n'est que juste d'ajouter celui de M. Mario Roustan, qui a été, à Lyon et à Paris, dans sa chaire de Condorcet, le professeur accompli que l'on sait. Je n'ajouterai qu'un mot qui ne surprendra personne, vu ma spécialité, pour souligner que, possédant une langue vivante au point de finesse voulu pour qu'elle soit sur instrument de culture, le ministre actuel sait apprécier, outre la valeur des humanités classiques, les bienfaits des humanités modernes. C'est assez dire que, dans la question des classes surchargées, ni dans celle des examens d'accès aux divers paliers du Secondaire, ni, l'heure venue, dans celle de l'originalité propre de notre Enseignement, le Ministre ne laissera périliter aucun des intérêts supérieurs, dont il doit assurer la sauvegarde.

Serrons de plus près l'affaire des classes pléthoriques. J'ai lu le rapport détaillé qu'a présenté sur ce point M. Perrotin, la discussion qui a suivi en France, et les modifications ou addenda dont il l'a complété, avec une largeur de vues et une mesure on ne peut plus louables. Le débat sera repris ici même, avec une ampleur nouvelle, puisque nos collègues des autres pays, comme vient de le faire l'Inspecteur-général Duckworth, apporteront le résultat de leur expérience et de leurs réflexions.

Permettez-moi de vous soumettre les miennes, autant en professeur—je le fus 28 ans et ne saurais l'oublier—qu'en administrateur. J'ai éprouvé qu'au-delà de 30 élèves, effectif que nous atteignons rarement en langues vivantes avant la guerre, la fatigue doublait et que le rendement faiblissait en proportion. Pour cet enseignement du moins, où la pratique individuelle est indispensable, 30 me paraît le maximum. Dans d'autres disciplines plus théoriques, on

pourrait aller jusqu'à 35 sans dommage irréparable, mais là devrait, par une règle fixe, s'arrêter la hausse de l'effectif.

Dans les classes de langues modernes, les seules dont je puisse parler de connaissance directe, les chiffres de 35 et même de 30 ne sont pas très fréquents en raison du partage des élèves établi suivant la langue choisie.

Dans les cinq Académies que j'ai visitées cette année, sauf dans les très grandes villes, je n'ai trouvé qu'à titre tout à fait exceptionnel des effectifs accablants. Ce fut particulièrement le cas pour un grand lycée de jeunes filles de l'Académie de Lyon. Quand je serrai l'enquête de près, je me rendis compte que si la responsabilité de l'Administration était engagée, celle de la Ville l'était beaucoup plus, car si les classes en question avaient été dédoublées, comme le demandait sans aucun doute l'intérêt des études, les locaux sont tellement insuffisants qu'on n'aurait pu faire fonctionner parallèlement les classes nouvelles et les anciennes.

Il n'en subsiste pas moins, dans la majorité des disciplines, une situation grave à laquelle il est urgent de porter remède.

Depuis deux ans malgré la crise le Ministère a créé un nombre appréciable de chaires nouvelles. Je reconnais que ce fut moins pour alléger les effectifs que pour transformer en chaires les heures supplémentaires que nous reprochent obstinément les Finances et qui naguère ont rendu si laborieuses les négociations avec le grand argentier pour obtenir les ajustements légitimes que réclamait la situation matérielle des professeurs. Dans l'impossibilité où nous sommes de créer toutes les chaires qu'il faudrait pour dédoubler les classes surchargées, on se verra encore obligé de recourir aux heures supplémentaires, mais, soyez-en convaincus, ce ne sera qu'à regret et avec l'idée bien arrêtée de reprendre dès qu'il sera possible la transformation de ces heures en chaires consolidées. Il le faut pour l'intérêt supérieur des études, pour la dignité du corps professoral ; il le faut, d'une manière dramatiquement urgente, au nom de la paix sociale et de l'équité, pour assurer du travail à toute cette jeunesse ardente, qui a peiné, lutté pour conquérir ses grades et qui maintenant heurte en vain à la porte de fer de l'Université.

Je vous dois toute la vérité. Même avec plus de jeu dans les finances, je doute qu'on ait de beaucoup augmenté le nombre des chaires. Pour quoi ?—Parce que le rôle du Ministère ne consiste pas à satisfaire les besoins du moment, si légitimes soient-ils. Du poste d'observation qu'il occupe, découvrant un vaste horizon, il a le devoir d'administrer

en vue d'une série raisonnable d'années. Or, pour l'inviter à la prudence, il doit tenir compte de deux indices. Pour renseigner sur la courbe à venir du recrutement des élèves, le concours des bourses nationales constitue un baromètre infallible. Or, que nous indique-t-il, cette fois-ci ? Je prends les chiffres donnés à la Commission du 30 juillet. Ils établissent que pour l'Enseignement secondaire le nombre des postulants a brusquement baissé d'un tiers. Au lieu de 5123 il y a 2 ans, et de 3168 l'an dernier, il n'y en a que 2174 cette année. Cette chute est fonction de la natalité 1923-24, époque où les naissances, la crue d'après guerre passée, ont repris leur niveau moyen d'aparavant.

Elle a été accentuée encore par la pression économique et de plus par une connaissance plus répandue dans les familles des obligations à longue échéance que comporte le choix de l'Enseignement secondaire. Si bien que, comme vous le souhaitez, le bon sens reprend le dessus. L'effet des examens d'entrée fera le reste, et l'on peut dire que, dès à présent, le flot est endigué.

Vient pour le Ministère une seconde raison de prudence. La crise s'étendant à toutes les nations, la plupart nous rendent les agrégés qu'elles nous avaient empruntés dans les années prospères. Sur les 145 que nous avions détachés, un nombre croissant chaque année demande sa réintégration. Ce motif s'ajoute à celui que je donnais tout à l'heure pour faire redouter l'arrêt brusque d'ici 1 ou 2 ans des concours d'Etat, ce qui serait une catastrophe pour la jeunesse.

Parmi les solutions que certains d'entre vous ont envisagées, il en est une qui mérite une attention particulière. Elle consisterait quand il y a excès notoire d'effectif, à réduire le maximum d'heures de service afin de laisser plus de temps au professeur pour ses préparations et ses corrections. Ces traits d'esprit n'ont pas manqué pour caractériser ce nouveau mode de supputer le travail. L'esprit est le bienvenu. Il assaisonne le bon sens et ne l'étouffe pas, ni le sens de la justice. Or, justice et bon sens sont vraiment choqués quand on voit, ce qui arrive à tout le moins dans les langues vivantes, que certains services hebdomadaires comportent un nombre total d'élèves très inférieur au nombre dont tel autre collègue a la charge dans une seule heure et une seule classe. En des temps où tout le monde travaille dur, et dans l'Université et hors de l'Université, ces inégalités nuisent à notre bonne renommée. Si l'on donne suite à cette idée d'abaisser le maximum des professeurs indûment surchargés, l'équité voudra que l'on allonge l'horaire des

professeurs aux effectifs particulièrement légers. Cette grave réforme, n'en doutez pas, serait précédée de toutes les enquêtes désirables et entourée de toutes les précautions légales.

J'en viens à présent aux concours d'accès à l'Enseignement secondaire et aux examens de passage.

Laissant de côté les détails techniques, je ne puis que répéter la déclaration qu'a faite à votre représentant M. le Directeur Vial :

"Messieurs, nous avons mis entre vos mains le poigné du robinet." Et cela est si vrai que, sollicité par un écrivain déjà notoire d'intervenir pour son jeune fils, écarté d'un grand lycée de Paris pour note insuffisante en calcul alors qu'il avait par ailleurs deux bonnes notes, je me bornai à m'informer auprès du proviseur. Les faits étaient exacts, le cas litigieux. Mais la majorité des professeurs s'étant prononcée contre l'admission, ni le proviseur ni moi n'avons songé un seul instant à remettre l'affaire en délibéré. L'enfant a fait sa 5^e ailleurs, avec l'idée fixe de préparer un nouvel examen de passage. Dans de tels cas, il est à espérer que les jurys, à côté des chiffres, tiennent compte de cet élément moral, de cet attachement élogieux et touchant à l'égard de la qualité d'enseignement que nous dispensons.

Durant la génération de professeurs qui était la mienne, sans même être aiguillonnés par les grands nombres, nous ne cessions de réclamer des examens de passage probants et efficaces. Vous les avez obtenus, Messieurs : à vous d'en faire le meilleur usage, j'entends un usage libéral.

Pensons toujours que l'éveil mental, pas plus que croissance physique, ne se déclenche à date fixée. Méfions-nous des précocités factices vouées à l'avertement ; soyons attentifs aux qualités naturelles—comme la vivacité des sens, la richesse du sentiment—qui seront plus tard les nourricières des dons intellectuels. Tout cela est fort délicat et l'on ne pouvait espérer réussir dès la 1^{re} ou la 2^e année. Si l'Administration, personne abstraite, est parfois mal pourvue en psychologie, elle se compose d'administrateurs qui se recrutent parmi vos rangs ; ils font confiance à votre esprit de finesse, car ils gardent eux-mêmes le plus longtemps qu'ils peuvent, le souci non pas du pur intellect, mais celui des êtres complets et des âmes vivantes, sentiment qu'ils ont puisé dans le commerce inspirateur et rafraîchissant des jeunes enfants.

Penchons-nous un instant sur eux pour la démarche initiale, qui est aussi la plus délicate, l'entrée en 6^e, porte d'accès

à notre enseignement secondaire. Je connais vos vœux et ceux de la Fédération des Parents d'Elèves. Il est équitable de tenir compte des uns et des autres. Il subsiste encore entre eux quelque divergence. Efforçons-nous de les réduire au minimum par une interprétation que tienne compte de l'âge des enfants, des notes précédemment acquises dans la vie scolaire normale, en dehors de l'émoi troublant d'un premier examen. Les notes de ces petites épreuves ne sont que des indices qui s'ajoutent à ceux qui nous viennent d'ailleurs, et les uns comme les autres sont à interpréter dans le sens le plus largement humain.

Sous le bénéfice de ces remarques, nous pouvons, je crois, considérer que limitation du nombre et sélection, les deux graves questions de l'heure si elles ne sont pas complètement résolues, sont en bonne voie de l'être. Ce sera dû aux efforts conjugués de vos congrès, tant nationaux qu'internationaux, à l'activité de la Fédération des Parents d'Elèves, et à titre d'arbitres et d'exécutants responsables, aux administrateurs aussi—ces professeurs impénitents."

"In accordance with a courteous tradition, I beg leave to add a few more general remarks in English.

From the fine speech of my colleague, H.M. Inspector Mr. Duckworth, I gather that if the secondary schools in this country have increased in number, in variety, in efficiency, if the supervision of the Board is more and more in request, with of course the accompanying grants—the trend of tradition is not broken. Your secondary schools are either the standing outcome of old foundations or the new product of local conditions. The result is that you have nearly as many different types as you possess schools. So your field of experiments is as wide as the Argentine pampas. Reform may be slow among the older brand, but on the other hand original growths and sappy shoots keep springing everywhere and the Board of Education, which is also a Board of Pedagogy in store for the future, enjoys numberless opportunities to collect knowledge and the substantial honey of wisdom.

With us the case is different. I do not mean to say that we have no variety of schools. People abroad are apt to forget that in the secondary department private and confessional schools nearly equal in number the State schools. *They* can afford to make experiments, for the parents of their pupils are entirely in their hands, whereas the parents of the State schoolboy esteem that, as tax-payers, they are for their offspring entitled to the same brand of education

as their fellow citizens of the neighbouring town. Hence when our Board makes a change, as it did in 1925, it is and must be a sweeping change throughout the length and breadth of the land. In France, minor experiments, new departures in education are commonly made by private schools. They stick to the oldest part in point of dogma and classical drill, but strikingly move with the times in point of comfort, subtle dealings with the families and modernism . . . in open-air sports.

The unfortunate thing is that, owing to what the Americans call the *Great Divide*, there is no connecting channel between the two sets of schools, no exchange whatever of educational experiments.

On this point our English friends score a decisive advantage. Their schools of every description compare notes and exchange results in the grand educational clearing-house which in London, in the first week of every year, works so earnestly and so successfully. This kind of practical lesson is what we, of the French Secondary Department, come to reap and treasure in your yearly gatherings or in auspicious occasions such as this.

Modern philosophers and critics have again and again insisted on that preference of yours for the living lesson of experience. I will not echo their well-known sayings. But to show how deeply rooted it is in your nature, I'll call to the bar two old witnesses who were contemporaries in the time of Louis XIV, a French poet and a Dutch scientist. The latter is Christian Huyghens, who lived long in Paris and London, haunting the best social, literary and scientific circles. In his hastily scribbled diary, quite recently brought to light, he jotted down :

'La méthode des Anglais est de s'attacher plus à faire des expériences que des raisonnements.'

It makes one's heart good to see the Dutch savant, who studied the English in London at the very time Locke against his will was an inquiring foreigner at Amsterdam, hit such a neat likeness of our hosts and masters in practical pedagogy.

Now we'll find the very same statement worded in French verse by the most amiable of our classical bewigged poets, the friend of all—*Pamphilus*, as he used to dub himself—whom now all love throughout the world, I mean Jean de la Fontaine.

One of his last fables, 'La Renard Anglais,' 1694, was dedicated to Madame Harvey, an English lady, whose maiden name was Elizabeth Montague. In her *salon*, he had met

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One of his last fables, 'La Renard Anglais,' 1694, was dedicated to Madame Harvey, an English lady, whose maiden name was Elizabeth Montague. In her *salon*, he had met

with accomplished representatives of English society and wit.
And our fabulist proceeds :

Je veux

Y coudre encore un mot ou deux
En faveur de votre patrie :
Vous l'aimez. Les Anglais pensent profondément ;
Leur esprit en cela suit leur tempérament ;
Creusant dans les sujets et forts expériences,
Ils étendent partout l'empire des sciences.

And he goes on :

Non point par peu d'esprit ; est-il quelqu'un qui nie
Que tout Anglais n'en dit bonne provision ?
Mais le peu d'amour pour la vie
Leur suit en mainte occasion.

You note how generously he gauges the English mind, how aptly he shows its decided bias for the process of experiments. He is not content to state the fact. He discusses the case : 'Non point par peu d'esprit.' He repeats they have their ample share of it. The only lack he deplures, the old smiling man who had quaffed with gusto the nectar of life, is the facility with which they snap the thread of their own existence. This feature of English psychology had very early struck continental observers. Well, all peoples who have come of age have a right to possess conflicting elements in their composition. What we want to keep in mind is the remarkable concourse of Dutch science and French poetical insight to sketch in the seventeenth century, a portrait of our friends to which we, in the twentieth century, can still give our complete approval and hearty applause."

A brisk discussion followed.

SECOND SESSION.

The discussion was resumed at the second session, at which Professor Guido Rispoli, as the President of the Rome Congress in 1934, took the chair. In accordance with the general practice, a questionnaire on the chosen subject had been sent out to all the affiliated organisations and the replies to these were summarised by Mr. A. S. Treves in the following report. Space does not allow of the printing of the questionnaire, but the report indicates the nature of the questions included.

"It is far from easy to summarise the answers and to draw

from them conclusions that will be acceptable to all ; opinions differ so much that we can hardly hope to reach agreement after discussion. The exchange of views is fruitful, however, and if we fail to agree we shall still have done good work at this seventeenth Congress.

The questions in the first part of the questionnaire raise political as well as educational difficulties. Where secondary education is intended to fit an elite for leadership there can of course be no question of giving it to everybody, and a belief in a necessary and permanent order of precedence among the disciplines is incompatible with the conferring of the same name upon them all. It must be added that almost everyone recognises that lack of means should never be a bar to continued attendance at school.

In the second part the professional problem of the trust to be placed in Primary Teachers is raised. In Scotland they have the full confidence of their secondary colleagues who would willingly leave it to them to select our pupils. In Esthonia, on the other hand, they seem to have no claim to consideration. In Latvia the influence of the home is thought preferable to that of the school until the seventh year and the age of admission is consequently raised to fourteen.

It is almost unanimously the opinion that only ability to profit should be the condition of admission, and that it should be tested by a qualifying rather than a competitive examination. The test should be written and bear upon knowledge of the mother-tongue and arithmetic. It should not be wholly under the control of the State, and there seems to be a majority in favour of its being run by the School. Psychological tests should be introduced only as checks, psychologists having so far failed to persuade. In Esthonia and in Latvia prognostic tests are allowed some merit but everywhere else they are looked upon with suspicion. Oral examinations have fewer supporters than written examinations, but it should be borne in mind that in some countries (England among them) while there is criticism of the ordinary oral examination there is no hesitation in recommending the practice of interviews at which the examiners can form an estimate of the ability and character of the candidates. Our friends from Luxemburg would like to see the examination postponed until the end of the probationary year. Where other subjects than the two already mentioned are considered advisable specific recommendations are rare, but mention must be made of drawing which the French recommend and

of manual work which finds favour in Bulgaria. Luxemburg calls attention to bi-lingual countries.

The multiple-bias school with sides either from the first or from the third year finds more support than the secondary school with one type of curriculum competing with other post-primary schools.

There are a few answers to the questions which appear for the first time in the third part. One might be tempted to find in fatigue the reason for the omissions, but it may be that the national Associations have not yet given the problems enough consideration. Where an opinion has been formed—and vouchsafed—there seems to be a majority in favour of selection on grounds of general rather than special ability."

THIRD SESSION

In the absence of Dr. Adamovics, the President of the Riga Congress of 1933, the Chair was taken by his compatriot, Director Ziedonis Landavs.

After discussion the following resolutions were adopted by the meeting.

I. The term "Secondary Education" connotes all forms of post-primary education whatever may be their curricula which have for their chief aim general intellectual culture and moral development of the individual.

II. Such an education fits the individual for all trades and occupations and should be available for all children capable of profiting by it, irrespective of race, religion, rank, or means.

III. The entrance test must endeavour to estimate aptitude rather than assess attainment.

IV. All available information about the candidates must be placed in confidence before the examiners with the answers to the questions set in the examination.

V. So long as all post-primary schools do not come within the definition given above every effort must be made to establish and maintain between them all possible contacts and exchanges.

In addition, the following subjects were referred to the Council for further study and investigation :

I. The co-operation between elementary and secondary teachers and parents in the conduct of the Examination.

II. The conditions and methods of careful and continuous readjustment where necessary.

III. The means of ensuring the necessary elasticity in a system based on the definition given above.

Mr. Van Houdt, the headmaster of a Belgian Secondary School, then reported on improvements in Secondary School buildings and equipment in various countries during the year.

Throughout the meetings, language difficulties were reduced to a minimum by the work of the three interpreters, Messrs. Lawton, Rude and Treves, which was the subject of much appreciative commendation.

Business Meeting of Secondary Section of W.F.E.A.

At the close of this session a brief business meeting of the Secondary Section of the W.F.E.A. was held. Mr. G. Robertson took the Chair in the absence of the Chairman of the section. The Secretary gave a brief report of activities since the Dublin Congress. She had passed on a number of letters from pupils in schools in the U.S.A. to pupils in England, Holland, Czechoslovakia, Italy and Poland. She was unable to say how far the correspondence continued after the first letters passed, but the meeting learned with interest that in the course of the present visit to Europe, one teacher from the States had arranged to visit the family of a child with whom one of her pupils had corresponded. The Secretary went on to describe the arrangements which existed for the interchange of teachers and pupils through the English Speaking Union for Anglo-American Exchanges, through the International Sub-Committee of the Four Secondary Associations with the co-operation of the Modern Language Association and the Anglo-German Bureau for exchanges between England and continental countries. Machinery for similar exchanges existed between France and a number of her neighbours in Europe. She would be glad to send detailed information to any inquirer wishing to receive it.

The meeting then closed with the re-election of the present officers of the section :—

Chairman : MR. RAY MYERS, Council Bluffs, Iowa, U.S.A.

Secretary : MRS. U. GORDON WILSON, 29, Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.

Council Meetings

The Council, which is composed of two members from each affiliated association, held five meetings under the presidency of Miss A. R. Morison. Of the twenty-three member countries Bulgaria, Germany and Greece were unable to send delegates owing to the re-organisation of teachers' associations which is at present proceeding in those countries.

After hearing the reports of the Secretary-General, Mr. L. G. Buurveld (Holland) and of the Treasurer, Mr. G. R. Parker (England), the Council considered two applications for affiliation, those of the Association of Secondary Teachers of Switzerland and the Association of Principals of French Lycées. Both applications were accepted and the representatives of the two new members were welcomed to the Council.

Considerable discussion took place on the internal organisation of the Federation, which has been the subject of some criticism. Three sub-committees were appointed to consider respectively (1) the constitution, (2) the Bulletin and finance, and (3) procedure at the Congresses. On the recommendation of the first sub-committee it was decided to add to the four members of the Executive Committee a President who shall hold office for four years. Hitherto the President has been nominated by the country holding the next Congress and has held office for one year only. It was felt that this placed difficulties in the way of continuity of policy and working.

The second sub-committee presented recommendations with a view to effecting economies in the production of the Bulletin and the third proposed certain changes in procedure which it was hoped would save time and increase efficiency. All three reports were approved.

The Council then proceeded to elect the President, and by a unanimous vote the choice fell on Mr. G. R. Parker. Under the Statutes Mr. Buurveld and Mlle. Collette had to retire from the Executive Committee on the expiry of their term of office and they were ineligible for re-election. Mr. C. Boulanger (Belgium) was elected to succeed Mr. Buurveld as Secretary-General and the two vacancies on the Committee were filled by Mr. K. Kärre (Sweden) and Mr. G. Rispoli (Italy). Mlle. Collette (France) was appointed to represent the Federation on the Liaison Committee of the Major International Associations and Mr. A. M. Gossart (France) was appointed to serve on the Council of the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers.

During the week conversations had been taking place with regard to closer co-operation with the World Federation, and as a result of these conversations suggestions were put forward as to the lines along which such co-operation should be established. The Council considered these suggestions and welcomed the idea of closer relations. It agreed to the following principles as a basis for the continuation of negotiations :

1. Each organisation to maintain for the present its identity and independence.

2. A certain delimitation of spheres of activity to be agreed upon, the W.F.E.A. placing its major emphasis on wide general educational questions and the I.F.A.S.T. dealing mainly with the professional and corporate interests of teachers in secondary schools.

3. Each body to try to interest its members in the activities of the other.

4. The I.F.A.S.T. to supply to the W.F.E.A. copies and/or copyrights of its publications for a financial consideration.

5. A joint committee of the two bodies to be set up to examine the means by which these principles may be put into effect.

It was decided that further negotiations should be left in the hands of the President, the Secretary-General, Mr. Buurveld (Holland) and Mr. Cossard (France).

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

Chairman : MISS SELMA M. BORCHARDT, Washington D.C.,
U.S.A.

Secretary : LIAM MACSWEENEY, Killerglin, Kerry, Ireland.

Place of Meeting : The Wesley Memorial Church Hall.

FIRST SESSION, MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST,

9.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

EQUITABLE EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALL GROUPS
IN ANY NATION.

Educational Opportunities for Minorities

Honourable Norman Bentwich (High Commissioner
for Refugees of the League of Nations)

Before the war, said MR. BENTWICH, there were 100,000,000 people in Europe who were minorities, and there were still 30,000,000. The war, instead of getting rid of the spectre of nationalism had increased it and made it again the gravest and most menacing factor in Western Europe.

One of the greatest difficulties was in regard to secondary and higher education and in admission to the liberal professions. One way to deal with the minority problem was by social influences that would produce a fairer vocational distribution. If, for instance, there were a fairer distribution in the occupations available to a Jewish minority it would mitigate the concentration in certain fields.

But there was no solution more thorough and offering more promise than the encouragement of the minority to promote its own institutions of higher learning, so that there are not only universities of the dominant people but of the minority people. Cultural preservation was really a good thing in a country, and, far from trying to bring about cultural unity, it was to the benefit of the State to produce diversity.

In Switzerland, in Denmark, and particularly throughout the British Empire this was done, and he thought that if this principle were generally adopted it would make toward the peace of Europe. Nothing was so important to-day as to strengthen the cultural side of nationality, so that it might be some sort of check upon the extreme political and economic nationalism which might bring our civilisation to ruin.

The Education of the American Negro

Dr. Charles H. Thompson (Dean of the School of Education, Howard University)

"It is the primary purpose of this discussion to give a comprehensive and objective analysis of the problem which the Negro faces in his attempt to secure equitable educational opportunity in the United States of America. It is my specific purpose to define the problem; not to solve it. Accordingly, I shall attempt to suggest the answers to three specific questions: *First*, what is the comparative educational status of the American Negro to-day? *Second*, what are some of the basic factors which determine this status? And, *third*, what steps have been, and are being, taken to improve this status?

In attempting to define or understand the problem which the American Negro faces in his attempt to secure equitable educational opportunity, there are certain basic facts concerning the educational set-up in the United States as a whole, which should be kept in mind. First, it should be emphasised that one of the basic assumptions underlying public education in the United States is the doctrine that, among other things, an equitable educational opportunity is the inalienable right of every American child, irrespective of his race, creed or socio-economic status. Second, it should also be remembered that public education in the United States is a function of local support and control. The public school 'system' is not a system at all, but forty-eight or more independent school systems supported and controlled by the individual states, and their minor divisions. Third, because of the wide variations in the *ability* and *willingness* of local units to support public education, obviously this extreme decentralisation creates a problem in providing equitable educational opportunity for American children in general, to

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say nothing of a disadvantaged minority. A child living in New York State in the industrial East, for example, has five times as much wealth behind his education as that same child would have if he were living in Mississippi in the agricultural South. Moreover, even within the same state just as great, or greater, disparities are found among the various county units, and just as frequently, among the various district units within the same county. Thus the chances of any American child, whether white or black, to obtain educational opportunity, equal or otherwise, are determined almost exclusively by the section of the country in which he might live, the state in that particular section, the county in that particular state, and the district in that particular county.

Unfortunately 9,000,000 of the 12,000,000 Negroes in the United States live in the agricultural South. The agricultural South, comprising in the main the former slave states, is by far the poorest section of the country, by whatever criterion one may employ—financial, cultural, or otherwise. Financially, the South is only about half as wealthy, *per capita*, as the rest of the nation; culturally, it is even more poverty-stricken; and educationally, it is about where the rest of the country was fifteen or twenty years ago. Thus, even if the 9,000,000 Negroes who now reside in the South were white, their chance for educational opportunity would be less than half that of residents in other sections of the country.

The Negro is thrice penalised: first, for belonging to the wrong class; second, for belonging to the wrong race; and third, for living in the wrong section of the country.

For historical reasons, which will be discussed presently, the South has insisted upon the establishment and maintenance of separate schools for white and Negro children. This policy has been sustained by the various state and federal courts in numerous decisions affecting the issue. They have consistently held that the individual states have a legal right to establish and maintain separate schools for the various races, *provided*, substantially equal accommodations are furnished each race. Consequently Negroes are forced by law in nineteen of the forty-eight states and the District of Columbia to attend schools set apart for them. Moreover, this mandatory separation makes easily possible, and there actually occurs, such gross discrimination, that the Negro separate schools are almost invariably inferior to the white schools in the same school districts.

Some general idea of the nature and extent of this discrimination may be gleaned from the following facts: In 1930, in those states where separate schools are mandatory, the *per capita* expenditure for the average white child enrolled in school was \$41.31; while the *per capita* expenditure for each Negro child enrolled was *only* \$12.57. In other words, there was expended on the average Negro child enrolled in school *only* 28 per cent. as much as was expended on each white child. The range of disparity in expenditures extended all the way from substantial equality in the District of Columbia to *only* 12 per cent, as much for each Negro child in Mississippi.

As might be expected from the trend of *per capita* expenditures, Negro schools, in comparison with white schools on *all* levels, are provided with shorter school terms; with school equipment, poorer in quality and less adequate in amount; and with teachers, more poorly-trained, more poorly-paid and less adequate in number. For example, on the elementary school level, the typical Negro school is a one- or two-room structure—a ramshackle, dilapidated affair sadly in need of replacement, and insufficient even to “house” the pupils enrolled—some 40 per cent. more classrooms being needed if the Negro pupils enrolled are to have anything approximating *even* the seating facilities provided for the white pupils in the same communities. The average Negro teacher has 40 per cent. more children; and, although she has 70 per cent. as much training, nevertheless she receives *only* 41 per cent. as much salary. The school term is one and a half to two months shorter—thus making it necessary for the average Negro pupil to spend nine or ten years to complete the *same* curriculum that the white child in the *same* community has an *opportunity* to complete in eight years.

On the secondary school level, one-third (33.5 per cent.) of the white high school educables are enrolled in high school, while less than one-tenth (9.5 per cent.) of the Negro high school educables are so enrolled. This disparity in high school enrolment is due mainly to three factors: first, to the poor Negro elementary school just described; second, to the fact that twice as many Negro pupils of high school age are wage-earners; and third, to the fact that high school facilities are not available to Negroes in the same proportion as to whites.

On the college and university level the same sort of situation obtains—only it is more acute, because it inherits

the cumulative deficiencies of the two lower schools. There are approximately 250,000 white students in colleges in the South, as compared with less than 25,000 Negro students, although the ratio of whites to Negroes in this area is *only* 3 to 1. On the average, the state provides for 16 white students in higher institutions supported by state funds to each Negro student provided for in similarly supported institutions—ranging from 6 to 1 in North Carolina to 39 to 1 in Texas. The majority of all the white college students in this area (56 per cent.) are receiving their education in state-supported colleges and universities, while only two-fifths of the Negro students are enrolled in similar institutions. In addition to these facts, it should be observed that there is not a single state-supported institution in this area where a Negro may pursue graduate or professional education, although in these same states, in 1930, there were approximately 11,000 (11,037) white students pursuing graduate and professional education at public expense.

These facts reveal that the separate Negro school, although it is legal only when substantially equal facilities are provided, is unmistakably the occasion and the instrument of gross discrimination in the provision of publicly-supported education for whites and Negroes in these states. While Negroes have some occasion to rejoice that their schools have steadily improved for the past thirty years, *nevertheless*, as far as educational opportunity, equal to that provided for whites is *concerned*, the little advance that Negro schools have made is like the progress of an ox-cart compared with that of an automobile. For example, in 1900 the discrimination in *per capita* expenditure for white and Negro pupils was *only* 60 per cent. in favour of the white pupils; but by 1930 this disparity had increased to the almost incredible extent of 253 per cent. Moreover, this almost incredible increase in the disparity between white and Negro schools occurred, despite the fact that public school revenues in these states have increased some eight or tenfold, and despite the fact that the relationship between the races is alleged to have been tremendously improved. Thus, four-fifths of the Negroes in the United States find themselves forced by law to attend schools set apart for them, which are almost invariably characterised by such notorious and increasing discrimination, that, until this situation is remedied, they have no chance of securing educational opportunity equal in any respect to that enjoyed by whites in the same communities.

The other one-fifth of the Negro population live in the

Northern and Western sections of the country. Their problem of securing equitable educational opportunity is, in the main, *only* different in *degree* from that of the majority who reside in the Southern section just described. For the most part, they are illegally segregated for educational purposes—and in some cases legally, by permissive legislation—but they receive educational accommodations more nearly substantially equal to those of the whites than is true in the South.

Second question: What are some of the basic factors which determine this status? From this brief summary description, it is obvious that the crux of the Negro's attempt to obtain equitable educational opportunity is the separate Negro school. Not only does it permit and encourage gross discrimination, but as an instrument of social policy it connotes and enforces an inferior status, which in itself is the very antithesis of equal opportunity, educational or otherwise. However, the separate Negro school is not an isolated phenomenon. In fact, it is hardly a phenomenon at all. It is rather a symbol of the inferior social, economic, and political status of the Negro in American life in general; and, as such, his inferior educational opportunities are to be explained in terms of this status.

As far as economic status is concerned the American Negro is the mud-sill of our present economic order. According to the Federal Census for 1930, of the 5,500,000 Negroes gainfully occupied, 83 per cent. were farmers, workers in industry, and domestic workers, as compared with *only* 55 per cent. of the native white population engaged in such occupations. Thus Negroes are engaged, in considerably greater proportion, in the most poorly-paid and unstable occupations in the country, and the large majority of them are thereby forced to live on or below the subsistence level, even in normal times. They are the most economically insecure group in America to-day. They are the 'last hired and the first fired.' When depression comes, as it did, they are the first fired not only because they are Negroes but because they are also engaged in labour that can be most easily dispensed with. Accordingly, at the present time, while 20 to 25 per cent. of the white workers are unemployed, we find roughly 40 to 50 per cent., or twice as many, Negroes without employment.

As far as political status is concerned, the American Negro is a quasi-alien in his native land. Legally, he has the right to vote, hold office, and perform every other duty and enjoy

every other privilege incident to American citizenship. And, while the small minority living in the Northern, Western, and border states do actually exercise their suffrage rights—in one state electing a Negro Congressman, and in several other states electing Negroes to the State legislature and to other local offices—*nevertheless*, in the South where the majority of the Negroes live, they have been practically disfranchised by discrimination, intimidation, and the Democratic primary. Thus they have little or no voice in the management of the political units in which they reside. The political machinery is run *by* the white people, and mainly *for* the white people in the communities in which it exists. As a consequence they get inferior school facilities, inferior sanitation, *little or no* police protection; in fact, little or none of the conveniences which other tax-payers in the community expect and get.

Obviously the Negro's inferior status is by no means an accident; it is the result of a studied and deliberate attempt on the part of the white majority to restrict the Negro minority to an inferior caste status. Quite naturally, slavery has had much to do with this development. For, even before the slaves were emancipated, the seeds of enmity and hate had sprung up, growing out of the economic competition of the 'poor whites' and the slaves in the South, on the one hand, and the free Negro workman and white worker in the North on the other.

The general political effect of Emancipation in the South was the decline of the political monopoly of the slave-holding aristocracy and the increasing and ultimate ascendancy of the 'poor whites.' By the late '90's the governmental machinery of the former slave states was almost entirely in the hands of the 'poor whites'—the bitter and uncompromising enemy of the Negro during slavery. Thus their new power was employed in the paradoxical attempt to improve their own status by degrading the status of the Negro. Their motto was: 'Keep the Negro in his place'—which meant, *any* place that would leave no doubt in anyone's mind that the Negro was supposed to be an inferior caste. In addition, as pointed out by Du Bois in his 'Black Reconstruction,'* '... a determined psychology of caste was built up. In every possible way it was impressed and advertised that the white was superior and the Negro an inferior race. This inferiority must be publicly acknowledged and submitted to. Titles of courtesy were denied

* W. E. B. Du Bois, "Black Reconstruction," (New York) 1935.

coloured men and women. Certain signs of servility and usages amounting to public and personal insult were insisted upon. The most educated and deserving black man was compelled in many public places to occupy a place beneath the lowest and least deserving of the whites.' And, I might add that this sort of psychology continues to be emphasised in more subtle form, in the public press, over the radio, on the cinema screen, and even in the halls of learning.

Finally, the third question: What steps have been, and are being, taken to improve the status of the Negro in the American social order? Quite obviously, the Negro has not stood idly by and accepted the inferior status that has been, and is being, foisted upon him. On the contrary, with the aid of a number of liberal white friends, North and South, he has put forth, and is still putting forth, some rather strenuous efforts in opposition.

One of the first and most obvious steps minority groups have employed to improve their status, is migration. As far as the American Negro is concerned, migration has been characterised by two phases. The first phase began even before emancipation in the form of colonisation movements to other countries. The effort and subsequent failure to colonise the free Negro in Liberia, and in other countries, will readily be recalled.

The second and the more significant phase has been the migration of Negroes from the Southern farms and rural areas, to the cities of both the North and South. Since 1900 'over a million Negroes have migrated to Southern cities; while a million and a half have gone to urban areas of the North.' This urbanisation of the Negro has had several important effects upon his status. *First*, even in Southern cities, the Negro's life is freer and safer; the very nature of the urban environment has made it impossible to subject him to the same restrictions and to enforce the same racial taboos which are possible in the villages and rural areas. Moreover, it is not without significance that the majority of lynchings occur in the small towns and villages. *Second*, urbanisation has increased the stratification of the Negro population. *Third*, the very act of moving from the country to the city, *even* in the South, gives the Negro better schools. And, in the Northern cities, while in many instances his children are still forced to go to separate schools, nevertheless they receive educational accommodations more substantially equal to those of the whites.

A second type of effort put forth on behalf of the Negro

might be generally designated as interracial activities, and is best typified by the activities of the Commission on Interracial Co-operation, and the various philanthropic agencies such as the General Education Board, the Rosenwald Fund, the Jeanes and Slater Fund, and the Phelps-Stokes Fund.*

The personnel of these organisations is generally interracial, the majority being white. Their programme is frankly conservative and opportunistic, being confined almost entirely to the correction of the more flagrant instances of abuse, and to attempts to get the 'better' class of whites to appreciate the assets of the Negro group in their midst.

Without any intention of disparaging the efforts of such praiseworthy organisations, any objective appraisal forces the conclusion that they fall far short of making any *fundamental* change in the status of the American Negro. For, in the first place, their efforts do not reach the large mass of whites who constitute the real basis of the race problem in America; and, in the second place, these organisations either do not possess the power, or do not dare or care to use it, to change the status of the Negro in any fundamental sense.

As far as improving the educational level of Negroes is concerned, much has been done by the philanthropic agencies, with the little money at their disposal. *But*, when it is considered, that it would cost \$200,000,000 more than is now being spent on Negro schools in the South, merely to raise them to the present level of the white schools in the *same* areas, and an additional \$50,000,000 a year to keep them there, one gains some idea of the inadequacy of the ten or fifteen million dollars now being spent each year on Negro schools and other activities, by these agencies. Nor can we find much comfort in the thought, that the philanthropy of these agencies is stimulating a fairer spirit on the part of the white officials who disburse the public school funds. For, during the past thirty years, as already noted, the discrimination between the expenditures on white and Negro schools, instead of *decreasing*, has *increased* over fourfold.

A third effort by Negroes to improve their status grows out of the fact that in a democratic government, the normal means of expressing approval and voicing protest reside in the citizens' right to vote and resort to the courts. Thus, from the beginning, the Negro has resorted to the political

* Other organisations whose activities should be included under this head are: the inter-racial departments of the Y.M. and Y.W.C.A.'s, inter-racial work of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, and the National Urban League.

machinery of the State in an effort to improve his lot. It has already been noted that only in the Northern and border states do Negroes have the opportunity to resort to the ballot to any appreciable extent. And here, they do use their ballot fairly effectively in improving their status.

It will be recalled that, in the South, where the majority of the Negroes live, some 90 per cent. of them are disfranchised. As a consequence they have been forced to substitute the complex and expensive process of litigation for the ballot box. What other groups have been and are able to do through exercise of their suffrage rights, these Negroes have tried and are trying to do by resort to the courts.

Despite the rather obvious and important limitations of court action, many Negroes feel that the advantages gained outweigh any of the disadvantages that may and do accrue. In fact, they contend that in many instances the Negro has no other choice. For, in the first place, it is the only alternative at his command which can challenge in any effective manner some of the more flagrant and immediate abuses which he suffers under the policy and practice of segregation. In the second place, they point out that the Negro has gained favourable decisions in 42 per cent. of the cases he has brought; and, as far as circumvention of decisions is concerned, it is not a universal practice. And, in the third place, they contend that court action is one of the most effective means Negroes have at their disposal for making and remaking public opinion, as the *Scottsboro*' case so eloquently testifies.

A fourth effort on behalf of the Negro to improve his status is the attempt to enlist his co-operation and affiliation with various aspects of the radical labour movement in the country, such as Socialism and particularly Communism. The philosophy and programmes of the various elements of this movement are well known. Efforts on behalf of the Negro, particularly communistic, have included a wide variety of projects, ranging all the way from the very immediate and practical activities of insisting upon the removal of the colour bar and colour discrimination in trade unions and other workers' organisations, to the Utopian proposal of a Negro Socialist state in the black-belt of the South.

Without attempting to prophesy, even by implication, the future value of this movement as a means of improving the American Negro's status, it should be pointed out that the following are some of the factors which undoubtedly account, in large part, for its indifferent or little success up to the

present : First, in the United States it has not been possible to develop a radical class-consciousness *even* among white workers ; in fact, they are hardly organisation-conscious, less than one-fourth of the 25,000,000 organisable white workers are organised. *Second*, the assumption that 'the cause of the Negro's inferior position in American life is *primarily* economic, and only secondarily, if at all, racial,' has not proved to be a realistic comprehension of the problem. For despite the obvious identity of the economic interests of white and black workers and despite the good intentions of the leaders of the movement, the majority of white workers, dominated more by race prejudice than class-consciousness, have rather persistently refused to unite on any other basis than subordination of the Negro. Third, and in view of these facts, Negroes have refused to be the spearhead of the attack, for fear lest while they are fighting a class war from the front they will be subject to a race attack from the rear.

A final movement by Negroes to improve their status grows out of the fact that they are forced to live a highly segregated life throughout the country in general. The idea has been urged that Negroes should make a virtue of their necessity ; that they should capitalise their segregation to improve their status, by developing economic and cultural self-sufficiency. Thus Negroes have elected, or have been forced, to attempt to build a little Negro society, in every essential respect a replica of the dominant social organisation around them. With the idea of developing an independent black economy, they have developed a number of Negro business enterprises of one sort or another. Through the necessity of cultural survival, they have developed their own institutions such as the church, the press and the school. And at least one serious suggestion has been made that a similar procedure be employed to regain the franchise in the South.*

Despite the fact that this movement has given opportunity for the development of Negro leadership, and has given considerable opportunity for cultural attainment, yet it is clear to most intelligent Negroes that the ultimate end of

* Dr. Raymond Leslie Buell, of the Foreign Policy Association, in an address (in Washington, D.C.) last spring suggested that the way out for the Negro in the South, politically, consisted in devising a scheme whereby Negroes would be allowed proportional representation in the various political units ; whereby Negroes would vote *only* for Negroes, and whites *only* for whites ; and presumably whereby Negroes would vote *only* on those measures affecting Negroes, and whites *only* on those affecting whites.

such efforts is, and must be, an economic and cultural cul-de-sac. For in the first place, with 'credit, basic industry and the state' controlled by whites, the limitations of an independent black economy are obvious. And in the second place, the fact that 'cultures develop by constant borrowing and adaptation, rather than by isolated evolution of some unique racial quality,' suggests that cultural self-sufficiency is merely the beginning of cultural decadence. Moreover, it appears fairly clear that as long as the Negro is a minority group in America, segregation will not only carry with it the stigma of inferiority, whether justified or not, but will leave an easily identifiable and relatively impotent minority exposed to any and all sorts of discriminatory and predatory practices by a dominant and ruthless majority.

Accordingly, the American Negro is confronted by the dilemma of segregation. He finds himself apparently faced by *immediate* economic and cultural degradation, if he does not develop his separate life and institutions; and he perceives that the more self-sufficient he makes his separate institutions, apparently the further he moves away from his ultimate goal of full participation in American life on equal terms with any other citizen, regardless of colour. Because the Negro does not, in most cases, have a choice between segregation and non-segregation, his real problem is: given segregation is a fact, how can he use it as a means to his ultimate goal? Thus the Negro is forced into the paradoxical position of building up his segregated life and institutions with one hand, and fighting against the necessity for them with the other. Hence the improvement of his status in the American social order in general, as well as his advance toward more equitable educational opportunity, is primarily conditioned by *his success in this effort*.

It is obvious from the brief survey which I have attempted to give, that the problem which the American Negro faces, in his attempt to secure equitable educational opportunity, is not an isolated phenomenon: it is an integral part of the Negro's struggle for status in American life in general. The extent to which he will secure educational opportunity, equal in any respect to his white 'neighbours,' is dependent upon the extent to which he can achieve a status more nearly approaching theirs. The efforts by and on behalf of the Negro to improve his status have been, and are, many and varied. Many of them have been, and are, sentimental without much regard for, or conception of, the reality of the problem; many of them have been, and are, decidedly

opportunistic, without any, or due, regard for their ultimate consequences ; and many of them have been, and are, based upon high ideals and a realistic approach to the question. But it is equally clear that none of them has solved the problem, and all of them may be necessary."

Present Trends in the Education of the American Indian

Dr. W. Carson Ryan (Director of Indian Education
in the U.S.A., U.S. Department of the Interior)

"Strengthening North American Indian life rather than destroying it ; helping Indians to live their own lives in their own way, adjusting to modern American life where necessary or desirable, but managing their own affairs and making their special contribution to present-day living—these are the aims of the new policy of the United States Government with respect to the surviving three hundred thousand indigenous Americans and their education.

Whether this kind of a settlement of the American 'Indian problem' can actually be made is still a question. Those in charge of Indian affairs for the American Government, including those directing the educational programme, recognise the difficulties but are using every possible resource to make the new policy a success. Aided by the 'Wheeler-Howard Act' and the 'Johnson-O'Malley Act' passed by the United States Congress in 1934, which attempt to provide for all Indian groups, whether living on reservations under tribal conditions or in mixed areas with whites, and helped particularly by emergency funds that have been supplied with considerable liberality for Indians, the present Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Mr. John Collier, and the Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Harold L. Ickes, have striven vigorously for an Indian programme by the Government that would, for the first time in history, give the Indian a real opportunity.

The trends of the past few years in Indian education—and more especially in the past two years—have been in the direction of strengthening Indian tribal life wherever it survives, and developing it anew wherever it can be developed. Indian arts and crafts have been encouraged, both in the schools and in educational work outside for adults. The

segregated Indian boarding schools—deliberately designed in the beginning to destroy Indian family and community life in the belief that Indian life was necessarily 'bad' and must be superseded by the white man's 'civilisation'—have been drastically curtailed. A few of these schools have been retained for specialised training, but for the most part they have been replaced by local educational facilities close to the Indian homes—public schools in communities where white and Indian population were already commingled, Indian community schools run by the Federal government in areas where there is still a homogeneous Indian population. A staff of 'visiting teachers' (school social workers) at various points in the Indian country have been especially helpful in making the transition from institutional care to home responsibility. In the Navajo country of Arizona and New Mexico, forty-seven new Indian community day schools, serving adults and children alike, have recently been established. Staffed largely by native teachers and other workers, these centres aim to furnish an educational programme in health, better land use and grazing practices, arts and crafts, as well as the more usual tool subjects of the schools. The instruction is on a bilingual basis so far as possible, both Navajo and English being used, and we have been encouraging a recording of the marvellous Navajo literature that has only recently begun to be permanently recorded. In the Sioux country of the Dakotas a number of central community schools have been set up, with emphasis on the practical agricultural and industrial needs of the Indians of this area. To make certain that well qualified Indian leadership will be secured, Congress has made available this year \$175,000 in new funds for scholarship loans to Indian young people in colleges, universities and technical schools, and some five hundred young Indians are taking advantage of this assistance. It is significant that the immediate direction of this training programme is in the hands of well-equipped people who are themselves of Indian blood.

Behind the present programme of Indian administration in the United States, and particularly Indian education, there is an assumption that is new with us, and I believe is still relatively infrequent in the administration of native affairs generally—namely, that native life itself has values that urgently need to be maintained. The customary assumption of white superiority is abandoned in the new programme, so far as it is humanly possible to do it. It is assumed that

in all efforts carried on by the Government or other outside interests on behalf of Indians, the purpose is to be helpful while interfering as little as possible with existing modes of life. Indian ways of doing things are considered to be right except as they are found, by the experience of members of the tribe or others unselfishly interested in their welfare, to be positively detrimental to the Indians or harmful to the rights of others. Any intervention on the part of Government is not only premised on this right of Indian people to live their own lives with a minimum of outside interference, but it is felt to be the duty of the Government to assist Indians in safeguarding this independence, to protect and encourage it by equipping the Indians with whatever will strengthen their position, to supplement what they have with whatever may be found to be useful and good, building on the existing good in every case rather than tearing down, and helping Indians to retain an understanding and appreciation of their own culture and their own resources within themselves.

Nothing in this programme is intended, of course, to prevent Indians from utilising as much of modern methods of living as they care to adopt. In particular, we are careful to keep the way open for every Indian child and youth to get as far with education as anyone else in the population. What those at present in charge of the programme are trying to do, in a word, is to help Indians to see that they need not—and should not—surrender all that they have in order to be ‘modern’; but that they have, rather, an unusual opportunity to combine such advantages as there are in modern civilisation with the special advantages of their own culture.”

SECOND SESSION, MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST,
2.0 P.M.—4.30 P.M.

- I. OUR RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE ADJUSTMENT IN COMMUNITY LIFE OF BOYS AND GIRLS BETWEEN 14 AND 20.

Economic and Social Aspects of the School Leaving Age Problem

M. Dumas (Secretary, Federation Internationals des
Association d'Institutes)

“ Before the economic crisis the school-leaving age was justified by the existing conditions, but after the crisis there

was need for adjustment in order to meet the different circumstances. There were not the same opportunities in industry for children just leaving school, and their services competed with those of adult workers. At present hundreds of children leave school to find no job waiting for them; they find that the door of the factory in front of them and the door of the school behind them are both shut. The danger of this enforced period of idleness is a very grave problem, for by the time they reach the age of eighteen these young people form the opinion that it is a bad world because society cannot provide them with the work they are ready to do.

The danger is that they might meet people at street corners who encourage them in the belief that the only way to construct a society which will give them better opportunities is to overthrow the present constitution. This is a grave danger, and the raising of the school age would minimise it."

D. Kelliher (Irish National Teachers' Association), in speaking on this problem, said: "The Irish Free State Government has been considering this question for some time. In the 1926 School Attendance Act, the Minister for Education was given power to raise the school-leaving age to sixteen, and the report of a Commission sitting on the matter is expected shortly. In the I.F.S. it would mean removing 100,000 children from the labour market, would considerably relieve the unemployment problem, and would counteract the tendency to employ the youth to the exclusion of the adult. The period of fourteen to sixteen is a very critical period, important from the point of view of habit formation and the development of character. Hence it is the duty of all interested in social reform to safeguard the child during that period, and make the period of fourteen to sixteen a period of comparative security when character is built rather than destroyed.

From the point of view of the physical well-being of the child, the raising of the school-leaving age is important. It is not in the interest of the child physically to have him engaged in industrial or even agricultural occupation where a full day has to be worked.

But apart from any of these aspects, the efficiency of the worker and the freedom of the working class must be considered. Education gives knowledge which begets courage that is necessary successfully to face the problems of life.

Education is the gateway to freedom for the working classes, and we have many examples of education systems devised by ruling authorities for the sole purpose of depriving the working classes of that freedom which is their birthright. Where there is a true democracy, there will you find an education system which gives equal opportunities to rich and poor alike.

There are difficulties in the way. The loss of wages of children of fourteen to sixteen to a household is but one. However, it should be possible to compensate the parents of children who attend school after fourteen and who would otherwise be earning. This principle is recognised in the Widows' and Orphans' Pensions Bill which is at the moment passing through the Free State Parliament. The extra cost following on an extension of the school-leaving age would to some extent be offset by a reduction in the amount of unemployment grants. In the Free State, and in the rural areas in particular, the existing primary schools would provide the accommodation, and the vast bulk of the work could be done by the existing primary teachers. The extra cost then would not be as great as it seems at first sight."

Welfare Work Among Juveniles

W. Merrick (Executive, National Union of Teachers)

"This section is largely concerned with those institutions and agencies, outside school and home, which exercise a formative influence upon the character of the adolescent, and I propose to give you a brief description—a sort of thumb-nail sketch—of the voluntary organisations in this country which are engaged in Welfare work among juveniles.

The Common Aim

A pamphlet issued by the Boys' Clubs movement defines their aims as 'To raise the standard of fitness for life, and to create good citizenship.' The Girl Guides give their object as encouraging girls 'to build up ideals and activities of which the intention is to develop a better knowledge than heretofore in a practical way of home-keeping, mothercraft and citizenship.' An additional reason for extending their activities lies in the fact that very many of our young people are suffering from the ill-effects of unsuitable employment or prolonged unemployment. Theoretically, we send

our young people into industry for further training. Practically, seven out of every ten enter such blind-alley occupations as errand-boys, van-boys, newspaper-boys and other jobs which give no training for permanent work of another kind. At the immature age of fourteen the great majority are shut out from the discipline of education. Some of them fall into a condition of mental lassitude induced by long hours in dreary repetition work. Others drift into workshops where the moral atmosphere has a corrosive effect on the higher impulses of their nature.

The position of the young unemployed worker is even worse. Juvenile unemployment on a large scale is threatening to become a permanent feature of our industrial system. 'In the depressed areas it has reached a point where idleness, often for prolonged periods, must be seriously sapping the physical and mental potentialities of those who would be normally the backbone of the country ten or fifteen years hence.'* In such circumstances reclamation becomes an imperative necessity, and the voluntary organisations which exist for the purpose are performing work of social and educational value which is fundamental to national well-being.

Their Activities

In a long list of bodies which vary much in size, wealth, variety of activities and outlook, the more important are Boys' and Girls' Clubs, Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, Boys' Brigade, and Girls' Brigade. At the end of this paper you will find a list of other organisations which supply additional or alternative facilities for converting wearisome idleness into pleasurable and profitable activity. I have not time now to describe *seriatim* and in detail the work of each, and I can only make a brief reference to the work of two or three.

Boys' Clubs

Mr. L. R. Missen's book, 'The Employment of Leisure,' contains an excellent description of a typical club written by Mr. E. F. Piercy, Secretary of the National Association of Boys' Clubs: 'The Boys' Club offers something to attract almost every kind of member. The library is a cosy room with easy chairs and a coal fire, the shelves containing a variety of books of fiction, travel, biography and science. There are small tables where draughts and chess may be

* Report of an Industrial Survey in Lancashire and North-West England, by Jewkes and Winterbottom.

played, but, as in the old club, there is no card playing, as it seems to destroy the spirit of the club. In the gymnasium, boxing, physical training and gym. take place as well as team games, such as hand ball and basket ball; many members come to the gym. to train on their own, because the old custom still holds that a boy who is going to represent the club at football, or any other activity, has to keep himself as fit as he possibly can. Fencing is an activity which has been added since the early days and is very popular. The workshop is usually pretty full; it attracts the boy who wants to make things. It is not a class, but a craftsman is always there to help and advise. Many different kinds of things are made, toys of ply wood, photograph frames of linoleum, model ships, trays of beaten metal; whilst the more ambitious make tables, chairs and cabinets for their homes. In a small room near the workshop is a motor bicycle which has been taken to pieces by the engineering group. This group meets once a week under the leadership of the manager of a local garage to learn about motors and the mysteries of mechanics. Nearby is the dark room for the photographic circle. The canteen is a gaily decorated room with a counter across one corner where cocoa, buns and chocolate can be bought. The canteen is the conversational centre of the club, and here the football matches are fought over again and the chances of the club boxers in the Federation are discussed. On Friday evenings the whole club meets together in the gym. and there is an informal sing-song, after which the warden discusses the club activities. On Sunday there is the club service, followed by a concert or a talk. The great event of the year is the camp. . . .

Girls' Clubs

Mr. Missen's book, to which I have already referred, contains an informative article on girls' clubs written by Miss Dorothy M. Warren, Secretary of the National Association of Girls' Clubs. She tells us that when a girl leaves school, or falls suddenly out of employment, she may begin to feel that her leisure is becoming a burden instead of the delightful thing she expected it to be, and that if she is directed to a girls' club she will find in it opportunities to keep fit, to dance, to sing, to act in plays, to play games, to read, to take part in discussions, and to acquire a taste for and skill in craft work or needlework. Camping also will form an important part of her club life, and many girls who would



A JAPANESE GROUP

PROFESSORS TOMOEDA, HISAMATSU, KODAMA, DR OSHIMA, YASUTARO SANA, AND PROFESSOR HARADA

not otherwise be able to get away at all, or who would only have a very dull time, are able through the club to spend a healthful holiday with kindred spirits by the sea.

The Boy Scouts

The first troops of this movement were formed in 1908. To-day there are over two millions and a quarter of them in forty-eight different countries. The aims and methods of the movement as exemplified in the Scout Promise, the Scout Law, and its badge system, which creates incentives to sustained effort in a hundred and one practical ways, are all so well known that I need not take up your time by describing them.

The Boys' Brigade

The Boys' Brigade was founded more than fifty years ago in Glasgow and from one small company it has grown into a world-wide organisation having a strength of 110,000 without including companies overseas. The work undertaken varies in different companies, but nearly all the companies are alike in having a parade once a week for drill and a Bible class on Sunday. Other phases of the work include physical training and gymnastics; ambulance work and first aid; music in the form of instrumental bands, including brass, fife, bugle and pipe; swimming and life saving; football and cricket; club room activities and signalling. Each year the company holds a camp and there is also a badge system covering a wide range of attractive and interesting subjects.

Of the Girl Guides and Girls' Brigade I have only time to say that they model their activities on those of the Scouts and Brigades, making them, of course, more adapted to the interests and needs of the girls.

Co-ordination—The Central Juvenile Organisations Committee

Voluntary effort as a rule is well organised and local units benefit from contact with their own national head-quarters, but there is general agreement that arrangements are necessary to avoid overlapping between different organisations and consequent waste of effort.

In 1918 the new Education Act empowered local education authorities to 'supply . . . or aid the supply . . . of facilities for social and physical training for young people;' in other words, local education authorities were enabled to make grants to assist work of the kind being done by juvenile

organisations. It was soon realised that the most appropriate Government Department for the J.O.C. was the Board of Education, as the Department concerned with the new Act, and accordingly the committee was transferred to the Board in 1919 and has remained under its aegis ever since.

The J.O.C. is constituted in four groups :

GROUP I, consisting of representatives nominated by national organisations formed for the purpose of welfare work among juveniles.

GROUP II, consisting of official representatives nominated by the Board of Education, Home Office, Ministry of Labour, Scottish Office, County Councils, Association of Education Committees, Association of Municipal Corporations, and London County Council.

GROUP III, consisting of representatives of local juvenile organisation committees, one representative being nominated in respect of each group of juvenile organisations committees in each division in which the Board's inspectorate is organised.

GROUP IV, consisting of personal members, including not less than three teachers, nominated by the President of the Board of Education.

Local J.O.C.'s

The activities of local J.O.C.'s may be summarised under the following heads :

1. To act as a meeting ground for representatives of juvenile organisations and for persons engaged in juvenile welfare work, in which common problems and common action can be discussed. Common action may take the form of (a) making a brief survey of existing work, from which can be seen where the greatest need for further development exists and what kind of work is particularly called for, (b) conducting investigations into any matter of common interest, (c) arranging such functions as combined displays, exhibitions, leagues, and so on.

2. To express the collective opinion of the organisations on matters concerning which they can speak with one voice.

3. To act as a link between juvenile organisations and local education authorities (and other statutory bodies) working with them to promote juvenile welfare.

4. To assist voluntary organisations in the recruitment of leaders and helpers.

Finance

Local Education Authorities are empowered by Section 86 of the Education Act, 1921, to make arrangements, with the approval of the Board of Education, to supply, or maintain or aid the supply or maintenance of facilities for social and physical training in the day or evening. A substantial portion of the funds supporting J.O.C.'s comes from the L.E.A. grants. There are, however, many ways in which these grants are supplemented, and in some cases committees contrive to perform very useful work with little or no L.E.A. assistance. Exhibitions, displays, sports, bazaars, dramatic performances, and similar ventures are common sources of revenue. In one or two places the football or cricket side of the work helps, as for instance, if a big match can be arranged and a charge made for admission. Private subscriptions also swell the funds, and in one instance no less than £120 was given by a local dramatic society who gave performances for the special purpose of raising money for the J.O.C. In another district the local police force gave the proceeds of a football match, and Rotary Clubs and firms have also contributed.

King George's Jubilee Trust

Our last forward step in welfare work—King George's Jubilee Trust—has raised high hopes of more rapid progress in future. As evidence of this I will give you some quotations from the Prince of Wales's broadcast appeal in April last: 'For some time past there has been a widespread desire among countless people in this country for some opportunity of expressing to H.M. the King their loyal gratitude for his reign over us during the last twenty-five years . . . a desire that 1935 should not be allowed to pass without leaving among us some living and permanent commemoration of this Jubilee Year. I ascertained that nothing would give Their Majesties so much pleasure as a fund to be devoted to the welfare of the rising generation, and I can think of no cause that should make so national an appeal. . . . It would take a longer time than I have at my disposal to tell you all we hope the Trust will achieve, but broadly speaking it will provide more and better facilities for the recreation and guidance of the younger generation, encourage the practice of hobbies, the cultivation of abilities, and all those outdoor interests and activities that make for mental and physical fitness. . . . This kind of work is held up for lack of local resources and is crying for help from

some central source. . . . In addition to assisting organisations such as Boys' and Girls' Clubs, Brigades, Scouts and Guides, we have in mind our "outdoor programme" to help in providing camp sites, playing fields, hiking facilities, etc., for all young people . . . also an "indoor programme" to help towards club premises, workshops and gymnasiums in areas where such facilities do not exist to-day.'

This completes my attempt to sketch in broad outline welfare work among juveniles in this country, and in conclusion I must express my indebtedness to official publications, and in particular to the Board of Education's admirable pamphlet on the work of its J.O.C., from which I have lifted bodily several important paragraphs."

2. THE COMMUNITY'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR EDUCATIONAL GROWTH.

The Chairman said that in the United States there was a growing movement in favour of placing responsibility for educational finance to a greater or less extent on the Federal Government. She had heard it stated more than once that the Catholic Church authorities, acting it was alleged on instructions from Rome, were the chief opponents of this movement. She herself did not credit these statements, and she would call on Dr. O'Connell, the representative of the Irish National Teachers' Organisation, to tell them what the practice is in Ireland—a predominantly Catholic country.

Dr. T. J. O'Connell said when Ireland was governed from London proposals had frequently been made to introduce a system of local rating, or taxation, for educational purposes, similar to that in operation in England and Scotland. Education was then as now financed practically entirely from the central exchequer, and whenever a demand for increased financial aid was made on the Government the Irish people were urged to adopt a system of local taxation. This suggestion was always firmly opposed, however, by the Irish representatives in the British Parliament, and it was some consolation to him as an Irishman to learn as he now did from Mr. Guthrie's excellent and eloquent address, that the system which exists in Britain has not proved to be the entirely perfect one that had been represented to them, and that the Irish people were perhaps wise in their generation in opposing its introduction into their own country. In view especially of what the Chairman had stated, he would like to add that the proposals for local

taxation had no stronger opponents in those days than the authorities of the Catholic Church. He was not a little surprised therefore to hear that it had been suggested that the Church were adopting what might be regarded as an entirely contrary attitude in the United States. Speaking as a Catholic, he thought that the Church was concerned only to see that in any system which might be adopted would not carry with it conditions which it would regard as detrimental to certain fundamental principles, it was anxious—in fact determined—to ensure that the religious convictions of its children should not be interfered with, and so long as it was satisfied on these points, it was not, so far as he knew, committed to any particular system for the provision of educational finance. In the Irish Free State they had no local rating for elementary or secondary education. They had a small rate for vocational education and scholarships for elementary and secondary school students were provided from local sources. The main provision for education came, however, from the central authority. In Northern Ireland, where local education authorities had been established, the whole salary bill was borne by the central authority in addition to substantial grants for school building and equipment and other purposes. In the poorer districts of the Irish Free State the total cost of school building and equipment was borne by the State. In other areas the local school manager was expected to bear one-third of the cost of the erection of the school, though at present there is a strong and growing demand that the total cost should be made a State charge.

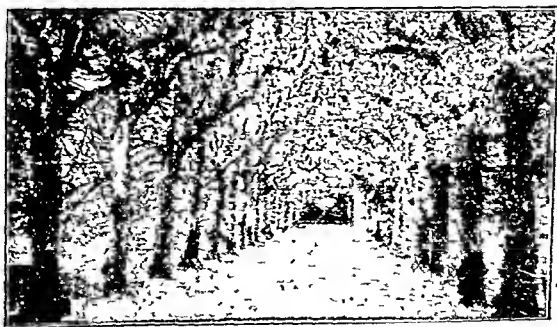


Photo: Alden (Oxford)

TRINITY COLLEGE, THE LIME WALK

TEACHERS' ORGANISATIONS

Chairman : H. L. CONSTABLE (INCORPORATED ASSOCIATION OF ASSISTANT MASTERS).

Secretary : H. HUMPHREY (EX-PRESIDENT, N.U.T.).

Place of Meeting : THE UNION SOCIETY HALL.

FIRST SESSION, MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST, 10.0 A.M.-12.30 P.M.

SECOND SESSION, MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST, 2.0 P.M.-4.30 P.M.

1. FUTURE CO-OPERATION OR CO-ORDINATION OF W.F.E.A., I.F.A.S.T. AND I.F.T.A.
2. CONSTITUTION OF REPRESENTATIVE JOINT COMMITTEE OF TEACHERS' ORGANISATIONS OF W.F.E.A., I.F.A.S.T. AND I.F.T.A.
3. THE POSSIBILITY OF AREA DEVOLUTION.
4. THE APPOINTMENT OF A JOINT COMMITTEE WITH THE W.F.E.A., I.F.A.S.T. AND I.F.T.A.

The Teachers' Associations of Lithuania, Switzerland and Roumania, who owing to unforeseen circumstances could not be present, sent messages to Conference.

The Chairman gave a brief review of the constituent bodies and functions of the three Federations in Conference at Oxford, and asked that consideration should be given to the possibility of closer co-operation.

Mr. H. N. Penlington (N.U.T.) said that in a broad sense the W.F.E.A. was concerned with educational practice, while the other two Federations were mainly concerned with the material interests of teachers. In Great Britain the N.U.T. and E.I.S. had been equally active in both fields. He reviewed the conversations in which he and subsequently

Mr. H. Humphrey had participated and, while fully recognising the difficulties that were to be overcome, he was not without hope that during the present week the initial official steps towards a working agreement would be taken. Mr. Penlington stated that in England we were concerned with efficient organisation, and he claimed that the Oxford arrangements were an example of what could be done. In respect of co-operation there could not be immediately a final scheme, but a first step would satisfy him, for the three bodies must develop a full scheme through understanding and mutual trust.

Mr. G. D. Dunkerley (A.M.A.) welcomed the statement made for the N.U.T. The synchronised conferences were a great experiment, and the experience justified the change of negotiation from the plane of conversations to official exchange of views. Two of the conferences were each concerned with one aspect of education, the first primary, the second secondary. In any arrangement each phase must be given equality, though from point of number of representatives present there might be great disparity. Closer working ought to lead to unification of effort, which would ensure greater effect upon public opinion and governments, a reduction of expenses through the elimination of duplication, and an easement in the appointment and attendance of delegates.

Miss H. D. Pearson (A.A.M.) welcomed the fact that the Secondary Section of the W.F.E.A. and the I.F.A.S.T. were holding joint meetings, and that the more important meetings of the primary and secondary sections did not clash. This seemed to prove that teachers were appreciating they were all engaged in a single service. At international conferences the narrower professional and political issues should be set aside that teachers might unite in their common aims. The A.A.M. would like to see eventually an International Federation which was a World Federation in fact as well as in name.

Mr. J. S. Robertson (E.I.S.) urged that a joint committee should draft a scheme of co-operation, report to the three Federations, and ratify such proposals as were accepted. If the W.F.E.A. continued in its present form there should be combined action on resolutions and a pooling of information. The time was opportune to consider a World Federation of Teachers' Organisations, consisting of the I.F.T.A., the I.F.A.S.T. and the American Federation of Teachers.

After long and careful consideration, during which a statement was made by Mr. F. Mander (President, W.F.E.A.), the following was passed with one dissentient :

“ This meeting of the Teachers’ Organisations Section records its appreciation that the W.F.E.A., the I.F.A.S.T. and the I.F.T.A. have held their synchronised conferences in Oxford.

“ The meeting regards this as a first step towards a permanent form of co-operation, and requests the Directors of the W.F.E.A. to take steps during the period of the present conferences to have set up a Joint Committee which shall ensure the maximum of co-operation in future and thus create a greater force for the promotion of world understanding, goodwill and peace.”

Mr. H. L. Constable (A.M.A.) and Mr. H. Humphrey (N.U.T.) were reappointed Chairman and Secretary respectively.



Fig. 2. Olden (Oxford)

ARCHES IN THE CATHEDRAL

VISUAL EDUCATION SECTION

President : MARCHESI PAULUCCI DI CALBOLI BARONE
(President of the L.U.C.E., the Italian Film Institute ; ex-Assistant Secretary-General to League of Nations).

Hon. Secretary : J. W. BROWN (General Manager, British Film Institute).

Place of Meeting : The Masonic Buildings.

FIRST SESSION, MONDAY, 12TH AUGUST,
9.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

Chairman : HERR MINISTERIALRAT DR. ZIEROLD (Director of the National Centre for Educational Films, Ministry of Education, Germany).

Subject : (a) General arguments for the use of films for educational purposes. General principles of the use of films in schools. Development of educational cinematography. International standardisation of sub-standard apparatus. International Convention for Facilitating the Circulation of Educational Films.

(b) Films and international understanding.

Messages of regret were received from The President and Dr. Luciano de Feo (Director of the International Institute of Educational Cinematography, set up under the auspices of the League of Nations, in Rome), who were both prevented at the last moment from being in Oxford for the Conference.

The President's Address was read to the delegates.

After having emphasised the importance of the Conference, he extended a warm welcome to all present, and thanked Mr. J. W. Brown of the British Film Institute

for his efforts in organising the Visual Section. Italy, he said, was most happy to give the Conference its support. He considered the most important problem in education to-day to be that of cinematography in relation to teaching. The continual perfecting of technique and expansion of cinemas into the most remote areas offer unsuspected opportunities of utilising and exploiting the film, and it is the duty and task of educationists to direct those possibilities towards the highest exigencies of life. Educational cinematography is now everywhere the order of the day. It accelerates the use of the film in the arts, in science and in the schools, and shows signs of applying a brake to the dangers of private enterprise, which frequently endeavours to attract greater public attention by crude appeals to the instincts.

The points to be considered at the Conference concern the general principles which affect the development of the educational film in regard to its use in schools, adult education and in social propaganda. Marchese Paulucci reminded his audience of the effective results to be obtained by using the film in all these spheres. Never, he said, has civilisation possessed such a powerful instrument of education. The newspaper and book have but limited scope and effect compared with the screen. He commented on the healthy changes he had observed in public taste. The cinema has achieved the dignity of a social factor, and the cinematograph industry must serve art and science.

He then touched on the first subject to be dealt with—the introduction of the film in the school, teaching methods, collaboration of teacher with producer and distributor, etc., and pointed out how the work of the International Institute of Educational Cinematography and the conferences held in Rome, Baden Baden and Stresa during the past few years for the standardisation of sub-standard apparatus for use in schools, had speeded up the installation of apparatus and the production of educational films in the principal countries in the world. The Ministry of Education in Italy have appointed a Commission, in conjunction with the L.U.C.E., which is already dealing with certain problems arising in connection with the use of the film in education.

Referring to the Second Session, Marchese Paulucci dwelt at some length on the value of the film in vocational guidance.

In connection with the Third Session, he said that it

is in adult education and social propaganda that the film can render its highest service to humanity. Directed on a universal plane, educational cinematography can accelerate the progress and broaden the outlook of the people. It is the task of educators to go into the possibilities of one of the most surprising inventions of the age and to devise means and methods, technical and didactic, for putting the cinema to its greatest use, which is to raise the standard of life.

Herr Ministerialrat Dr. Zierold (Chairman of this Session, and Director of the National Centre for Educational Films, Ministry of Education, Germany) gave an account of how the educational film is being used in Germany. This was based on the work of the new organisation created last summer, 1934, which, he explained, is really a continuation of the pioneer work already begun in certain towns.

By "educational film" he meant one made specifically for the classroom. The German Ministry of Education regard the film as a complement to, and not a substitute for other means of education, and believe that it should be used where it is important to make the child understand certain forms of life, movements and their developments, that is, when it connects the visual and dynamic side of life. They also believe in using the complementary static picture in preference to stopping the moving picture.

The sub-standard apparatus is used in the schools as it is secure from fire, cheap and easily transportable.

As the film is usually prepared for, shown and summarised in one lesson, pictures lasting from ten to fifteen minutes are used; in exceptional cases one subject will be shown in two or three continued films. As far as possible they are without commentary, the teacher providing this with the aid of a leaflet which accompanies each film.

The German schools at present use only silent films because sub-standard sound apparatus costs almost three times as much as silent, and it was considered wiser to begin by providing three schools with apparatus for silent films rather than one school with a sound projector. It is hoped to go over gradually to sound films.

Dr. Zierold considered that films should be treated in different ways for different ages and types of school, but in order to satisfy the primary needs of the schools they have begun by using themes which can be expressed in the

film in the same way for different schools and ages. No single subject is absolutely excluded from film treatment, but it is considered more useful for subjects such as botany, zoology, folklore, technology and geography, which deal with movement. No ages are excluded from using films, special subjects being provided for infants.

As the task of providing educational films can only be achieved through a central organisation, the National Centre for Educational Films was established in Berlin last summer, 1934. Twenty-four film centres in different districts assist the National Centre, and these in turn are connected with 800 centres in communes or towns, which distribute films and apparatus obtained from central organisations, to the different schools, and make provision for static pictures and for the instruction of the teachers in the art and practice of the film.

The National Centre began by drawing up a "Plan of Requirements," by studying school curricula and ascertaining at which points movements and developments capable of being illustrated by films were dealt with. Teachers are asked to submit their proposals for film subjects.

The educational film is usually made by giving a commission to outside producers and by re-editing old material, although it has been found difficult to make good films by the latter method. In producing new films the teacher collaborates with the producer and specialist, with very satisfactory results.

A Technical Department was added to the National Centre for the purpose of deciding, by tests which lasted some months, which of the many types of sub-standard apparatus in the market were most suitable for use in schools. Three models were chosen and are installed in schools. Regular examinations of projectors in schools are made, and the National Centre has stipulated certain minimum requirements so that it is possible to consider new apparatus and to discard old. The actual purchase of a machine is made by school governors, and about 3,500 sets have been installed in the few months of the Centre's existence.

The educational film was at first introduced only in primary and secondary schools. This spring (1935) universities and higher schools came within the purview of the National Centre, and it is hoped in the near future to include agricultural and industrial schools.

To finance these projects every pupil at schools using

films pays 20 pfennig (about 4d.) every three months for the purchase of films and apparatus. Children in adverse circumstances are exempted from payment. This system is in force at all schools, including elementary where, although education is free, parents pay for books, etc. The annual sum thus raised by elementary and secondary schools is about 4½ million marks (about £370,000). As the National Centre, being a big consumer, receives a large discount on the purchase of films and apparatus, it is possible to achieve quite a lot with such a sum, even if there are 55,000 schools to provide with apparatus.

They aim ultimately at providing every school with apparatus and a small library of the most necessary films. Until this is achieved films will be borrowed from the libraries of local film centres; these are increasing, and there is a comprehensive one at the National Centre in Berlin. Dr. Zierold said they were anxious to discover national distributing centres in other countries with whom they might be able to exchange films and with whom they might collaborate. In the exchange of educational films he considered that folklore films would play a great part in furthering understanding between peoples with different customs and living under different conditions, and in this direction lies the chief importance of the educational film towards international understanding.

At Dr. Luciano de Feo's request, Dr. Rudolf Arnheim read his paper in his absence.

In support of his statement that visual education is almost as old as humanity, Dr. de Feo traced the history of cinematography from pre-historic times—from cave drawings 25,000 years old. From that day to this, the demand for moving images has never ceased to exist, and both art and science have endeavoured to satisfy the need. Thus from the *camera lucida* of L. B. Alberti, to the *camera obscura* of Leonardo da Vinci and C. B. Della Porta, to Robertson's phantoscope and the cameras of Le Prince and Friese-Greene, we come to the cine camera of the Lumiere brothers.

Recent experiments have shown that in social propaganda and in the "re-education" of adults, the cinema has proved a most effective medium. The propagandist educational film in Italy dated from 1906 and has been successfully used in agricultural, hygiene, medical and over-crowding campaigns.

In support of his arguments for the importance of visual aids in the school, Dr. de Feo quoted scholars from Cicero of ancient Rome to Froebel. He affirmed that the film can be used to advantage in all forms of education. It must, however, be made to harmonise with the school curricula, keep within the limits of the time-table and be used as a first-class auxiliary by the teacher and not as a substitute for him. For the latter reason he considered silent films essential unless, as in some cases, the sound is an integral part of the subject. He emphasised the necessity of both teacher and pupil being prepared for the use of the film—the former being fully equipped for the task and the latter realising that the film has wider uses than being merely a form of entertainment.

Dr. de Feo then went on to trace the development of educational cinematography, which dates from the invention of the cinematograph itself. In the early years of the twentieth century important firms were producing educational films in France and cultural films in Germany. At the same time similar work was being undertaken by the Norske in Norway and the Svensk Filmindustri in Sweden. In Italy, even before 1912, Comerio, Ambrosio, etc., conceived a whole series of cultural films.

The immediate post-war years saw a flourishing production of American educational films through the efforts of Kodak, Erpi Pictures, Bell and Howell, etc., some of which now form the basis of scholastic film libraries.

He remarked on the rapid growth of the educational film library of the Musée Pédagogique in Paris, under the French Ministry of Education, which circulated 54 films in 1921, 29,000 in 1926 and over 50,000 in 1934.

In Czechoslovakia for over twenty years the Government has organised special health and hygiene film shows for the masses, and in 1924 films were introduced in the schools; in Prague from 20,000 to 150,000 elementary school pupils attend educational film demonstrations each year.

In 1928 there were 56,000 so-called teaching films in the world, of which probably 80 per cent. were cultural "shorts" and 20 per cent. research and scientific films.

In 1933 the British Film Institute was constituted, forming another link in the chain of such bodies, who had their origin and model in the L.U.C.E., the Italian Film Institute.

Dr. de Feo pointed out how, unlike the purely didactic

film, the scientific film has been appreciated and produced in large numbers throughout the world.

The International Institute of Educational Cinematography in Rome set up under the auspices of the League of Nations, has helped to foster among governments interest in the educational film and to bring about collaboration between educationists and producers.

Like Marchese Paulucci, he referred to the efforts of the past few years to standardise sub-standard apparatus for use in schools, and trusted that the 16 mm. I.C.E. standard, which was formally adopted at Stresa in 1934, would continue to hold the ground it had gained and be used universally by educational bodies.

He concluded by giving a summary of the basic regulations governing the application of the Customs Convention for the Purpose of Facilitating the International Circulation of Educational Films, which was approved at Geneva on the 10th October, 1933, and has since been ratified by the following contracting parties :—Bulgaria, Chile, France, Great Britain, India, Ireland, Italy, Monaco, Rumania, Switzerland. By this Convention films recognised by the Rome Institute as being of genuine international educational value may circulate freely across national frontiers without paying Customs duties of any kind. Numerous films have already been examined and granted certificates by the Rome Institute.

In addition to eliminating international barriers to the free circulation of educational films, Dr. de Feo suggested that such films should be encouraged in the ordinary cinema, the State giving them fiscal advantages by limiting or abolishing taxation in respect of *bona fide* educational films.

Dr. N. Gangulee (Professor of Agriculture and Rural Economy at the University of Calcutta), spoke as a representative of India, a sub-continent where the cinema offers a vast potential field, where with a population of 353 millions there are only 675 cinemas, and where film production is so backward that they depend to a large extent on foreign imports. He is firmly convinced that the cinema can and must be used for the diffusion of culture and better understanding between nations, and that this can be achieved through the International Institute of Educational Cinematography set up in Rome under the auspices of the League of Nations.

He stressed, firstly, the necessity for a co-ordinating

policy in film production, in order to present faithfully on the screen the social, religious, economic and political life of divers peoples. The producer has hitherto disliked the word "education," and in his efforts to make his productions sensational often hurts the justifiable susceptibilities of those whose lives he is attempting to portray. Many such films have caused bitterness and misunderstanding among nations, but the producer is now beginning to realise that if he does not use the instrument at his disposal to promote better understanding among the peoples of the world, symptoms of unhealthy reaction are bound to be provoked among races misrepresented. He stressed the importance of close co-operation between producers and important educational bodies, who can create public opinion, to which the producer must eventually respond. He referred here to the Film Moral Code of Will Hays which has operated so successfully in America.

Dr. Gangulee cited examples of films of India which contained gross blunders that would have been avoided had the producers enlisted expert advice. Educationists should assist rather than criticise the producer.

Secondly, he dealt with the need of effective co-ordination in distribution. Educational organisations have responsibilities which cannot be left entirely in the hands of commercial distributors. Dr. Gangulee had investigated the mechanism of distributing films in India, Egypt and Persia, and found a chaotic state of affairs; keen competition exists between agencies who are neither in touch with educational bodies in the countries in question, nor with public opinion there. Consequently they work on the assumption that anything sensational or likely to provoke curiosity is suitable. The result is deplorable. Such a lack of co-ordination in distribution is also evident in western countries: there should be more efforts towards evolving a concerted policy in regard to the use of the cinema as a powerful instrument for the development of international conscientiousness. The first step, he said, towards evolving a concerted policy for the spread of the educational films is to strengthen the Rome Institute, enlarging the scope of its propaganda and other activities to make possible close co-operation with the principal Asiatic countries. The Institute should undertake a special survey of the position and prospects of the educational film in India, Burma, China and the Near Eastern countries. Secondly, every avenue for enlisting the co-operation

Dr. Rudolf Arnheim, on behalf of Dr. de Feo, said that a catalogue of international value would be made by the Rome Institute, and he was sure that Dr. de Feo would be very happy to receive suggestions of the kind put forth by M. Lebrun.

Mr. Walsh (Dublin) ardently supported Dr. Gangulee's conviction that the film has an important part to play in promoting international understanding. He mentioned that Ireland was one of the countries which had been greatly misrepresented on the screen, although "Man of Aran" did much to portray the real spirit of the Irish peasantry.

A representative of China also mentioned that his country was often grossly misrepresented in the cinema.

SECOND SESSION : TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST,
9.30 A.M.—12.30 P.M.

Chairman : R. A. KISSACK, Jr. (Director, Visual Education, University of Minnesota).

Subject : (a) New developments in educational films.
Technical : microscopic photography, diagrams, cartoons. Content and educational treatment ; application of scientific principles and experiments to modern industry. Possible effects of use of films on educational curriculum.

(b) Existing supply of films. Background and instructional films. Technique of using films for various subjects. Type of films wanted by the teachers.

The Chairman commented briefly on some aspects of visual education in the United States of America, referring particularly to the intensive programme of the University of Minnesota. He said that, although America has no centralised bureau of information for educational films, great interest is being evinced in educational cinematography, as is evidenced by the number of books published on the subject and the numerous experiments being carried out.

This year there are over 70 summer schools, and over 80 schools or universities in the country are giving regular visual instruction courses. Apparatus varies from lantern slides to 35 mm. sound-on-film projectors, and in certain educational systems separate visual education departments provide a centralised film and projection service to the classroom. Film libraries of Federal Government Departments, educational film producing and distributing companies, museums and Extension Divisions of many State Universities provide local sources of material.

A typically American experiment, he said, has been carried out at the University of Minnesota. Three years ago, when the University already had a quantity of projection apparatus, a photographic laboratory and a rental film library, it was decided to increase the scope of visual aids, especially in newly established courses. The first step was to collect as much information as possible about film sources. As none of the available catalogues gave complete and accurate information it was necessary to see the films. Thus films are viewed daily by experts, are catalogued and annotated, booked for future classroom showing and, if wanted for frequent use, added to the film library. Although the work is in its early stages, many hundreds of films have already been examined.

Secondly, new equipment, both portable and permanent, was installed, professional operators engaged, and technical assistants trained, with the result that now, at short notice, any type of visual aid is available for use in any classroom.

Over 1,000 projections were made in the last school year, including a foreign language series of French talking films and weekly Newsreel Theatre programmes; each Wednesday five 45-minute programmes of carefully edited current newsreels and selected short subjects and travelogues, all correlated as a background series to courses of instruction at the University, are shown.

As the American youth is remarkably film-conscious, it is considered better to have no film than a technically outmoded one, and as good material is scarce, a production programme has been embarked upon. Production is supervised by experts and teachers and films are as technically perfect as budgets will permit. Before producing a film it is first ascertained whether the subject is one which particularly lends itself to filmic treatment and whether the film should be conceived as silent or sound.

Mr. Kissack referred to two particularly useful series of

films they had produced—one illustrating psychology courses and the other (a 12-reel production) which has been successfully employed during the past two years in training hospital nurses. Both series bring to the classroom the benefit of experiments and experience not easily accessible to students.

As the desire from all educational quarters for a national clearing-house of information is becoming increasingly articulate, it has been suggested that an "American Film Institute" might fill the need. If it is set up it will probably be a purely advisory body, with the primary object of stimulating and promoting most practicably interest in and the development of the educational film.

Mr. Kissack remarked that it was interesting to note that concurrently with these proposals the Museum of Modern Art in New York had just established, quite independently, a Film Library, which is to collect, preserve and distribute films of historic and artistic value.

He added that the proposed American Film Institute would very much welcome co-operation with other nations in the form of international exchange of material and information. He hoped to see this mutually desired co-operation operating during the coming year.

M. Lebrun (Director of the Musée Pédagogique, the Ministry of Education, in Paris) spoke of the requirements of the school as far as the educational film is concerned, how to satisfy their needs, and the effect of the use of the film on the educational system in general.

He mentioned that in France there are about 4,000 educational films, a large number of which are held by the Ministry concerned, who know their qualities and their defects. With their help special investigations can be made and urgent needs met. They are to a certain extent films made by specialists.

M. Lebrun considered that the first general principle to be adhered to is that the film should depict motion—it is a mistake to film static objects. Secondly, the film must be regarded by the teacher as an auxiliary, not a substitute. The purely didactic film is hardly established yet, and there is no universal method of using it—the teacher must use his own discretion.

The producer, who has a new field in the schools, will be rewarded by considering the educational film as a special branch of cinematography and collaborating closely with the

teacher. The filmic treatment of a subject will vary with the different types of schools in which it is used; films must harmonise with the school curriculum. As teaching is the primary object in elementary, secondary and technical schools, where the quick and slow alike must be catered for, M. Lebrun considers the silent film more practicable, except in cases where sound is complementary to the picture. The talking film is more practicable in the university.

The early educational film dealt as widely as possible with a subject, but the tendency now is to concentrate on as small an aspect of the subject as possible. The speaker referred to some excellent "3-minute" French educational films which were shown at one of the film demonstrations given during the Conference.

M. Lebrun then described his own experiments with films for children of five or six years, replacing wall charts for the moving, living pictures, and gradually introducing a first vocabulary. Experiments with a number of these films are being undertaken by the French Ministry of Education, in both town and country, and it is hoped to publish the results internationally.

In using the film M. Lebrun considers that the static picture should be interspersed with the moving. He has also found it a good plan to show the title of the picture last, giving the pupils an opportunity of providing a title from their own observations.

He deplored the tendency of producers to introduce irrelevant wit into educational films.

In speaking of the collections of educational films which are being formed by film institutes in a number of countries, M. Lebrun commented on the wealth of ready-made material in theatrical films. Such films, which have a documentary value, will be shown at the Congress of Scientific Cinematography to be held in Paris in October, 1935.

He mentioned, further, that the imminence of colour and television render it necessary to consider their possibilities.

In October the Musée Pédagogique will publish a first list of scientific films made non-commercially. It is the duty of all countries to trace such films, many of which have hitherto been cupboard matter.

In all the points with which he dealt, M. Lebrun urged international co-operation.

Mr. F. A. Ring (Executive, N.U.T.; representative on the Panels and Committees of the British Film

Institute) said that Britain is behind other countries in the use of the film in the classroom. The possibilities of the film as a teaching medium have as yet been so little recognised in Great Britain that only about one school in five hundred is equipped with a projector. This position is largely due to the financial difficulties the schools have been experiencing during the last few years. It is to be hoped that this and similar conferences will draw the attention of educationists to the importance of providing an adequate supply of teaching films and apparatus for their use.

Great Britain has suffered from the operation of a "vicious circle" which has prevented schools from installing apparatus until suitable films were available, and deterred producers from making films because there were not enough projectors to ensure financial success. There are under 3,000 educational films in this country and many of these have serious defects.

Few producers have realised the importance of the school market, and even fewer have realised the necessity for consultation with the teachers on the type of film required, its content and the method of presenting the material in a form suitable for class-room work.

The justification for employing this form of visual aid in the class-room must be either that it does something which cannot be achieved successfully by any other method, or that it does the work more efficiently. The essential work of the film is to bring to the help of the teacher that *movement* which imparts reality to his subject. To substitute this concrete experience for vaguely understood abstractions must inevitably arouse greater interest and a desire for further knowledge. Teaching will become more effective in consequence and interest in the wider world will be enhanced.

The "background" film should be employed for purposes of introduction or revision and to provide "atmosphere." The "direct teaching film" should have a more specialised purpose. Its business should be to assist in teaching a specific and clearly defined lesson within the limits of a single period.

In the case of the background film it is neither necessary nor desirable to rule out the possibility of using it in some form of mass display to controlled groups of scholars, but the class-room use of such films offers immeasurable advantages over even the best organised mass demonstration. Where the direct teaching film is employed its place is

essentially in the class-room and the time of use must be the appropriate moment in the course. In no sense should the film be used to supplant the teacher. Mr. Ring outlined a suggested method of using the film in the class-room, but pointed out that there is no one method—the teacher must use his own discretion and resource in handling the material available.

The contents of the film need most careful selection. They must be short, accurate and devoid of irrelevant matter. Captions must be plain and commentary couched in simple language. Liberal use should be made of maps and diagrams. There must be a careful weighing of the importance of each part so that a balanced and harmonious whole may result. The silent film still has its advantages, and Mr. Ring suggested that for a period of years both sound and silent apparatus and films should be available to permit of fair testing and experiment. The chief need is for both apparatus and films to be good of their kind. Whilst the cost of sound projectors remains so high, thousands of children will only be afforded, at best, the moderate opportunity offered by mass methods of instruction. If some method can be devised to bring the cost of projectors and the hire of films down to a figure that will make authorities willing to buy, progress will be rapid.

The first need is a central source of supply, if possible with standardised costs, so that schools may obtain what is required with a minimum of inconvenience. The second need is a comprehensive, accurate and critical catalogue of educational films. The British Film Institute is compiling such a catalogue, and it has recently established the machinery for the setting up of a National Film Library. Three aspects of the Institute's work which have a particular appeal to the teacher are: the systematic reviewing by experts of existing educational films; the compilation of a helpful report on the choice of apparatus; the examination of problems connected with the production of classroom instruction films.

There is need for the closest co-operation between educationists and producers, manufacturers of apparatus and the various organisations having a specialised interest in the movement. The British Film Institute has provided the machinery for such co-operation and the progress so far achieved provides every hope that the vicious circle will ultimately be broken down and the educational film will assume its rightful place in the educational system of Great Britain.

Dr. Smart (President, Association of Directors and Secretaries of Education in England) asked how the cost of films and apparatus in schools was met in the various countries. He considered that the State should bear the whole cost.

M. Lebrun replied that in France films are lent to the schools by State service, without charge and post free both ways. Apparatus being costly and needed in thousands of schools, the State, through the Ministry of Education, pays a subsidy of one-third, one-third is contributed by the Ministry of Agriculture and the other third is raised by the local education authorities or the schools themselves.

Mr. Kissack said that in American universities most of the cost of apparatus and films is included in the budgets of the universities themselves. He knew of no special State aid being given, but hoped that if the American Film Institute came into existence it would point out this need.

Dr. Zierold (Germany) confirmed the information given in his speech at the First Session, but added that the system of payment by the children might be regarded as an emergency one, as it is hoped that when the country's financial position improves the towns will be able to meet the cost themselves.

Mr. Ring said that he felt very strongly that the cost of reviewing educational films and providing experts to assist in their production should be a State charge, and that an increased subsidy should be made to the British Film Institute for this purpose.

He agreed with Dr. Smart that local authorities should bear the cost of apparatus and films and thought that payment by the children is likely to jeopardise the teachers' freedom to use or discard such visual aids at will.

A Malay States Inspector of Schools gave a brief account of how they made their own films, and even apparatus, and of the success with which they had used the film in propaganda campaigns among the native peasantry of Malay.

Mr. J. W. Brown (General Manager, British Film Institute) referred to the effective central film library of the Musée Pédagogique in Paris, which distributed over 50,000 films to schools in France last year, and to the Film

Library which has recently been formed at the Museum of Modern Art in New York. In Germany the whole of the film business has been centralised in the Reichsfilmkammer. A strong plea had been made by Mr. Ring for a central agency for educational films in this country, and consideration is being given to this. The British Film Institute has films reviewed by experts and publishes these reviews in its monthly Film Bulletin. With the ratification of the International Convention for free trade in educational films there is a great possibility for interchange and a central agency is needed in each country to facilitate everything for free trade. In addition to ratifying this Convention, Great Britain has authorised free trade in educational films in the British Empire. After the establishment of a central agency here for the distribution of films and interchange with other countries and throughout the Empire, an international agency will be needed to co-ordinate the whole of this work.

THIRD SESSION : WEDNESDAY, 14TH AUGUST,

9 A.M.—12 NOON

Subject : (a) Use of films in adult educational institutes and societies. Education for national and international citizenship. Social propaganda.

(b) Films in national life.

Mr. G. Peverett (Secretary, National Adult School Union ; Chairman, Social Service Panel, British Film Institute) took the Chair, and before introducing the speakers commented briefly on the importance of the film in adult education, and the need of helping people to realise that the film can be more than mere entertainment. Adult education often means "re-education." Mr. Peverett cited an experience of his in a cinema which proved that what is seen by the eye might produce an entirely erroneous impression unless the witness has a background of knowledge. He attached importance to the use of the film in adult education, particularly in relation to international affairs. He is of the opinion that the film has done much harm by misrepresentations of the peoples of other countries and that there is an urgent need for its right use in promoting better understanding among nations by true representation of their lives and cultures.

Mr. A. C. Cameron (Governor, British Film Institute ; Secretary to Oxford Education Committee ; Executive, British Institute of Adult Education) spoke on the use of the film in adult education. He said that the film and the radio are challenging the 300-year dominance of the printed word in education. Nowhere is the film of greater service than in adult education. It does not substitute a mechanical device for the interplay of personality between teacher and pupil, but is a tool which helps the teacher to simplify and vitalise his subject, and, as in the case of scientific research and medical films, it brings into the classroom the benefits of experiments carried out by experts, often under difficult conditions.

The adult education audience is not one but a dozen different kinds of audience, which between them make demands on the film co-extensive with the limits of cinematography, from the most specialised technical film to the most general entertainment and cultural film. Mr. Cameron set out the various groups of films in an ascending sequence, from the specialised to the general : first of all, the film for higher technical instruction, and scientific record in work of university standing ; then the film for use in technical schools ; the film for use in industry to demonstrate processes to the worker, to train apprentices and to guide young people—he said there are a number of such films in England, made by commercial concerns, but so far little has been done in this country for using the film for vocational guidance ; next comes the film for training in a special subject, such as agriculture ; the film for propaganda in respect of national issues, such as public health ; the teaching or interest film, helping the teacher in university extension or Workers' Educational Association classes ; general interest (or other) films for audiences of a special type, such as educational settlements ; film programmes for showing on special occasions, such as Sunday matinees ; and films of special artistic merit or cultural interest for local film societies. Outside the particular field of education there are two aspects of the film in adult education in the very widest sense, films used by religious bodies for their own purposes, and films used by Colonial administrators to serve the needs of a backward race. The researches of the Colonial Panel of the British Film Institute show that there is a field not only for technical and social propaganda films to instruct backward races, but for the right type of entertainment film.

Perhaps the most important service which the propaganda

film can render is to record worthily and unsentimentally a national culture. In a film-producing country the film has more than a domestic interest: it is not only "business," it is a national concern. Any film-producing country is going increasingly to be judged by its neighbours on the strength of the films it produces. A film has a national conception but an international life. Therefore, said Mr. Cameron, we must think internationally, desiring to see the best works from other countries freely admitted to our own; and nationally, in that we want our peoples to see life in terms of our own culture.

Dr. D. van Stavaren (President, State Film Censorship of Holland and of the Nederland Cultural Film Institute) opened his speech on the use of the film in adult education by referring to the work, experiments and investigations which have been carried out in the realm of adult education for the working classes. He emphasised that, because the average worker at twenty years of age has retained very little of his early elementary education, university extension lectures, conferences, etc., are beyond him. In educating the working classes it is necessary to base instruction on their mode of living and cultural needs. Dr. Van Stavaren's experience in Holland at the Institute for the Education of the Working Classes has been that they like coming into their own institutes, governed and financially supported by themselves, where education is adapted to their own needs.

The film is particularly suited to stimulate the interest of the uneducated and tired man and it has proved in Holland the means of attracting large numbers of workers to educational centres. But it is first necessary to teach him the art of *seeing* films, to view the contents critically, to be moved with the desire to account for what they have seen, to regard the film as a technical achievement, realising the skill which goes into its production. By systematically chosen film material he may be taught to appreciate the activities of his fellow-men and he may study and discuss rationally the secrets of animal and plant life, the customs of other nations, etc.

There should be general discussion on film technique, to give the student a sound appreciation of the film that he may learn to choose his pictures wisely. It is only by raising the standard of public taste, said Dr. van Stavaren, that we may expect an improvement in the standard of films produced.

(Unfortunately, lack of discrimination when visiting the cinema is not restricted to the working classes.) The use of the film in adult education will not only increase knowledge and broaden the outlook of the people, but it will advance the uses of a powerful cultural medium. It is true that there are bad films, as there are bad plays, books and music, but there are also excellent films which can influence national and international understanding, and when the worker is educated to appreciate the best in films he will remain unaffected by those which fall below the desired level.

Mr. E. Green (Workers' Educational Association) suggested collecting special films and showing them in special cinemas in the large centres throughout the country so that in most cities there might be at least one cultural cinema. It would be necessary to have sufficient capital to make the theatres really comfortable that they might compete with existing cinemas; lack of comfort and amateurish organisation accounted for the failure of an experiment of this kind in Yorkshire some years ago.

He also considered that the time has now come when boards of education should have advisory committees on the production of films for use in schools and adult education, and that the State should now see the efficacy of this work and give it more financial support.

Mr. A. C. Cameron thought it might interest those present to hear of the experiment which is at present being carried out by the Liverpool and Merseyside Branch of the British Film Institute. They made an arrangement with the proprietor of a local cinema whereby they undertook to provide the audience if he would provide the kind of films they wanted, these would be selected by themselves. Mr. Cameron hoped this idea would develop.

He pointed out that through its monthly Film Bulletin, containing reviews by competent people of all entertainment films generally released, to aid the intelligent film-goer in his choice of programme, the British Film Institute is helping to build up a body of informed public opinion to support pioneer picture houses.

He also mentioned that the History and Arts Committee of the British Film Institute now has official reference from the Home Office Advisory Committee to the effect that they may issue a "Voucher of Approval," guaranteeing the

historical accuracy of any film submitted by any producer to the Institute for examination.

Mr. Peverett emphasised the need for repertory cinemas or a new library system of films.

Educational Film Demonstrations

The following film demonstrations were given during the Conference week :—

TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST.

Mr. A. C. Cameron introduced the following films :—

Physical Training—Infants. Produced by Gaumont-British Instructional, Ltd., in co-operation with the Physical Education Committee of the British Film Institute.

Fruitlands of Kent .. G.-B. Instructional.

The Life Cycle of a Plant

Machine Tools Steuart Films.

Mensuration

City of St. Albans .. Visual Education.

The Fecundation and	} German educational films brought over by representatives of the National Centre for Educational Films in Berlin.
Division of the Egg	
Cells of a Rabbit ..	
An X-ray film of the Human Body ..	

THURSDAY, 15TH AUGUST.

Mr. A. C. Cameron introduced the following films :—

Overture to the Meistersingers Western Electric Co.

Molecular Theory of Matter " " "

Sound Waves and their Sources (produced by the University of Chicago)

Surface Tension British Instructional Films.

Phases of the Moon .. Atlantic Three Minute Films.

New Europe " " " "

Pacific Problems " " " "

Les Mouvements Vibra-	Compagnie Universelle
toires.	Cinematographique.
The Life of the White-	German films provided by the National Centre for Educational Films in Berlin.
tailed Eagle.	
Children Toy-making ..	

FRIDAY, 16TH AUGUST.

The following amateur films were introduced by Mr. W. J. Hands :—

Enfield Grammar School, 1933.

The Hill Top Nursery School.

A Film of the West Bromwich Schools' Sports Association.

Flowers and Butterflies (a Dufaycolor film of an English garden, produced by Mr. G. L. Hawkins, F.R.P.S.).

Projection apparatus for the First Demonstration was provided by Gaumont-British Equipments, Siemens Halske (Cinepro) and S.P. Equipments, Ltd.; for the Second Demonstration by Western Electric Co. and Siemens-Halske (Cinepro, Ltd.). Mr. G. L. Hawkins, F.R.P.S., made projection arrangements for the Third Demonstration.

On Friday, 16th August, *Citizens of the Future*, the film of the National Union of Teachers on the State education system in England, produced in collaboration with Gaumont-British Instructional, Ltd., was shown for the first time to a large and appreciative audience at a cinema in Oxford.

The film was followed by two Gaumont-British Instructional films, *How Talkies Talk* and *How Plants Feed*.

At the conclusion of the programme Dr. Weyl had an opportunity of showing some extracts of an entirely new experimental X-ray film which is being produced by Dr. Djian of Paris.

“ Once, my dear—but the world was young then—
 Magdalen elms and Trinity limes—
 Lisson the oars and backs that swung then,
 Eight good men in the good old times—
 Careless we and the chorus flung then
 Under St. Mary's chimes ! ”

—QUILLER-COUCH.

ENGLISH SPEAKING UNION

TUESDAY, 13TH AUGUST.

Chairman : THE VICE-CHANCELLOR OF OXFORD UNIVERSITY.

Secretary : Miss H. FITZRANDOLPH, Carlton Club, George Street, Oxford.

Place of Meeting : Rhodes House.

Fatigue and Modern Life

Professor Winifred Cullis (University of London)

Professor Cullis dealt chiefly with industrial fatigue and the methods of measurement with their statistical results. It was interesting to note that the first period of work after a rest or holiday, such as the hour after mid-day dinner, or the whole of Monday, is always that on which the least work is done. After that the rate of work increases until the end of the day or week when it drops again.

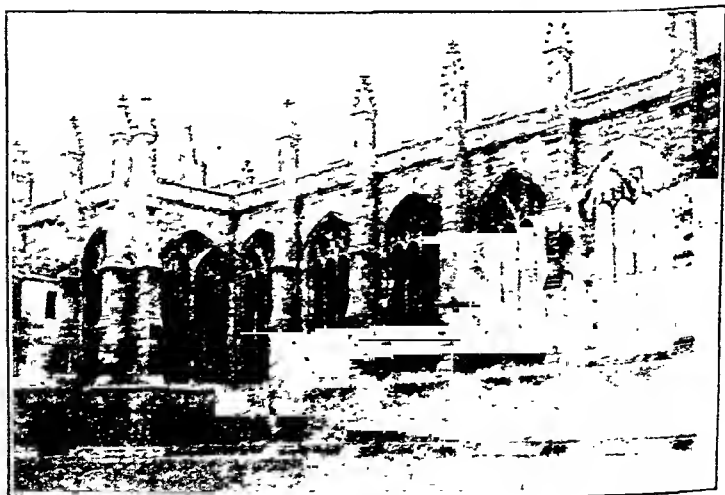
One of the most important points of such measurements is to note that the worker is not himself aware of the decreasing rate of his work but thinks it is the same as when he was fresh, yet one of the tests proved that certain muscular movements of the finger or hand were not taking place at all after a certain period, when the worker thought that they were achieving exactly the same result as when he began to make them.

The practical result of these experiments was to prove that far more work could be accomplished if rest pauses were given at suitable intervals. In fact, the enormous number of hours during which good work could be done, provided that they were broken by a studied number of intervals, was startling as compared to the extreme brevity of the time during which the worker is able to work well without a break.

Professor Cullis enlivened her talk with many amusing tales, some of which went to show the extreme care with which such experiments must be watched. The psychology

of the person submitting himself to an experiment is of great importance and if anything disturbs this, as in the case of the factory girl whose young man was waiting for her outside, and the subject cannot put her mind to the discipline of accuracy, then the test itself is worthless. Another story that was amusing to both English and American members of the English-Speaking Union, was of the persistent methods of advertisement that obtain in America. We were all glad to hear that the Professor, from whom an interview had been stolen while she was held up in a traffic block, had succeeded in securing a donation from the firm concerned for her hospital in London.

An application to our ordinary life was made by Professor Cullis as the result of these experiments in industrial fatigue. To make careful preparations for our work so that it is within easy reach of us, to make our movements large and sweeping rather than small and cramped, but above all, even in ordinary life, where there is more diversity of occupation than in a factory, to be sure that we take plenty of rest pauses for the relaxation of mind and muscle, is to ensure that a greater volume of work will be carried out each day as well as that there will be less waste of effort in the course of what is accomplished.



[Photo - Alden (Oxford)]

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS

EXECUTIVE BUREAU

- F. MANDER (National Union of Teachers, England).
G. LAPIERRE (Syndicat National des Instituteurs, France).
D. V. TONI (Asociatia Generala a Invatatorilor din Romania).
Mlle. WAHLMAN (Sveriges Allmänna Folkskollärarforening).
J. MOLNAR (Magyarországi Tanítóegyesületek Országos Szövetsége).
M. LYLYK (Wzajemna Pomoc Ukrainskiego Uczycielstwa).
Mlle. DE OLIVEIRA FERNANDES PINHEIRO (Associação Nacional das Sociedades de Educação).
L. DUMAS (Secrétaire General).

ANNUAL CONFERENCE, 12TH, 13TH AND 14TH AUGUST.

Place of Meeting.—MANSFIELD COLLEGE.

MORNING SESSIONS, 10.0 A.M.—1.0 P.M.

AFTERNOON SESSIONS, 2.30 P.M.—5.30 P.M.

Teachers' Associations of England, Scotland, France, Denmark, Spain, Holland, the Dutch Indies, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Finland, the United States, India, Australia, Argentine and Nicaragua were represented at this Conference, and Representatives from the League of Nations, the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, the International Labour Office, the International Education Office, the New Education Fellowship and the International Secretariat of Teachers' Trade Unions also attended and delivered addresses of welcome.

Chairman's Address

At the opening session, M. L. Dumas (Secrétaire-General) delivered the following address: "Our Conference again opens this year under the influence of the Economic crisis which embraces the world, and the clouds which cover the sky throw their threatening shadows upon our Associations.

Our life as educationists is overcast. Financial restrictions paralyse professional progress. Classes are too large, schools are neglected and material (apparatus) are not renewed. The dignity of the teacher is diminished by the reductions on remuneration. A large number of our pupils having reached the age when compulsory attendance ceases, spend their time in the streets between two closed doors—that of the school and that of industry.

In spite of the growing crisis we do not boldly attack the root causes of the trouble. Dictatorships build on the ruins of liberty a new military system of anguish and terror due to growing poverty. Thus some of our Associations have lost their independent existence and their funds, and we bow to the empty seats of our German, Austrian, Bulgarian and Latvian colleagues as well as the valour of those whose names are on our lips and who preferred deprivation or exile rather than be untrue to our ideal.

This regression is the cause of the scouting of the spirit of peace and of international goodwill. The modern idea of international goodwill is giving way to the former conception of primitive tribes who fiercely watched their totem, observed its rites and its taboos, but had an unlimited admiration of themselves compared with others in the outside world.

Are we going to desert before this return movement to the conditions of a former time, conditions which we thought had gone for ever?

Are we going to take down our colours and abandon the twofold motto of our Federation?

'Collaboration for Educational Purposes.'

'Co-operation in the Interests of Peace between the Nations.'

We do not think so.

We do not think so because we are educationists, and to forsake this ideal would be detrimental to our profession. How could we teach if we had not liberty? How could we teach against liberty?

How could we without losing our self-respect crush our children's spirit and train it for moral and intellectual slavery for conformity with what is dictated by a State?

How could we lead them to regard other nations as inferior, as outcasts, unclean and corrupt?

How could we induce them to join in this collective, frantic idolatry, giving to Cæsar what belongs to God?

And how could we inculcate in the children's minds contempt for international agreements, for peaceful settlements of quarrels; how can we inculcate a love of violence while we—all of us—in our hearts ardently desire that peace be lawfully organised so that legal justice be substituted for the settlement by the warrior's sword.

Our work is neither delusive nor unreal. Our presence here is evidence of our desire to gain liberty for the teacher and to promote the welfare of the profession and the cause of peace.

There can be no doubt that we have not changed the world: we are not ingenuous enough to think that we have. But everywhere, in all countries, we have quickened the interests of our colleagues, awakened hopes, strengthened courage. Nothing that we have done has been lost. Even those who are compelled by brutality and by adverse circumstances to keep silent remember and wait.

They wait for better days when they will be able to join with us. Our fraternal Federation represents for them in the troublous night in which they struggle, an abiding bright light. This belief in ourselves stimulates us to make our Federation better informed, more active, daring and confident in the supremacy of the spirit over all forms of violence or forces of brutality."

Opportunities for Organising Peace Teaching in School

Monsieur Lapierre submitted a report on opportunities for organising peace teaching in schools. He pointed out that to attempt common rules of action for each affiliated nation would be difficult and even dangerous. He argued that it would be more profitable for each unit to so frame its course of action with due regard to the nation involved, but such action should be compatible with the fundamental principles of the International Federation of Teachers'

Associations. M. Lapierre referred to the excellent results of the recent Peace Ballot in England and Wales, and in his opinion these results reflected in the main the growing desire for peace among the peoples of the world. The teachers of France were being criticised for their peace propaganda, and M. Lapierre stated that the criticism came from those French papers which were read abroad, and warned his hearers that they should not arrive at the conclusion that the people of France desired war. "If peace and liberty are lost in France," he said, "there may be international repercussions which would threaten the very foundations of freedom and democracy."

With regard to peace literature in the schools, M. Lapierre praised what had already been done, and suggested that there should be an exhibition of books at the next meeting of the Federation. "Let us have in our schools histories of peoples and not histories of kings and wars," he said in concluding the report.

In the subsequent discussion, Mr. J. W. H. Brown (President, N.U.T.) stated that the National Union of Teachers was unanimous in support of the resolution on peace teaching in the schools. He pointed out that there was no connection between the teaching of peace and politics, and that propaganda should be avoided.

The following resolutions were adopted :

I. The Conference of the I.F.T.A., held in Oxford on August 12th, 13th and 14th, 1935, confirms the statement many times made by the Federation and its member Associations of their attachment to the cause of international co-operation and peace.

It should be remembered that right at the time of its constitution in 1926-27 the Federation inscribed in its bye-laws as one of its fundamental aims—contribution to the peace of the world.

Furthermore, from year to year, in a series of Conferences, the Federation studied under the education angle the various aspects of the problem of peace and co-operation among nations :

In 1928 in Berlin :

Resolution concerning war-inspired schoolbooks and international impartiality in teaching.

In 1929 in Bellinzonæ :

Debate on " The School as an Instrument of International Goodwill."

Resolution in favour of a book of international history describing the contribution made by the League.

In 1931 in Stockholm :

Condemnation of all military preparation in school.

In 1932 in Luxembourg :

Debate on an international scheme of teaching history with the conclusion that teaching of history should be based on an anxious research of truth, should be free of elements capable of provoking hatred to the foreigner and should stress every point which in the past or present expresses the solidarity of peoples.

In 1933 in Santander :

Debate on the crisis of education for peace and its origin in the international situation—political and economic ; protest against the working camps intended to camouflage military training ; affirmation of faithfulness to the idea of international co-operation in all fields of action ; the will to participate actively in moral disarmament and uncompromising hostility against the solution of all international disputes by armed forces ; appeal to the co-operation of all members with a view of obtaining progressive, simultaneous and controlled disarmament ; prohibition of private manufacturing of arms ; obligatory recourse to international jurisdiction ; application of economic and financial boycott in cases specified by the Covenant of the League of Nations.

II. The Conference of the I.F.T.A. recalling that the teachers, members of affiliated associations, profoundly devoted to the cause of peace, have striven to develop among children and young people the spirit of justice and international co-operation which is the base of the Covenant of the League of Nations ; to eliminate or to attenuate in school books such passages as might inoculate the young generations with germs of fundamental misconception of other nations (see the resolution of the Assembly of Nations of September, 1925) ; to achieve lasting moral disarmament so as to establish conditions favourable to a material general and progressive disarmament ; recalling that a representative of the I.F.T.A.

has been appointed to take part in the activities of the Committee of Experts for the revision of textbooks ; that in one of its resolutions this Committee appealed to teachers' professional organisations to take care that only textbooks free of all passages prejudicial to international goodwill should be used in schools ; that the International Committee of Intellectual Co-operation in its session of 1932 expressed its confidence in national and international teachers' associations on behalf of moral disarmament and international co-operation ; affirms its will to continue its activities.

But the Conference of the I.F.T.A. must put on record that the obstacles encountered by the League of Nations and the Conference of Disarmament have increased the difficulties for the creation of a moral atmosphere favourable to international co-operation ; that in the face of renewed attacks by nationalist organisations, the teachers, faithful to their ideals of peace, do not always meet on the part of public opinion and authority the support to which they feel entitled in recognition of their attachment to the problem of international reconciliation.

In consideration of the diverging character of national traditions and aspirations, the Conference stresses the general tendency of teachers of all countries towards a patriotism in which the love of one's country should not be separated from the love for mankind. This teaching for peace does not oppose education of the people for the defence of liberty and democracy against attacks from outside or inside.

The Conference wishes that across national borders men of goodwill should group around teachers in a decision to serve this human patriotism and to rise up against the ideology of international defiance.

III. The Conference of the I.F.T.A., in response to the call of Professor Murray, confirms its faith in education for peace.

Inspired by its experience acquired by ten years of activities on behalf of international co-operation and promotion of peace, convinced that " genuinely pacific education should involve not only a teaching of pacific ideas, but an adaptation of the entire mind to international relations " (Piaget) ; that international co-operation, in order to become an attitude of mind and heart, must be not only studied but experienced ; recommends to all those belonging to member Associations to use all available means known to modern pedagogues for this intellectual and moral education of their pupils.

A system of teaching history, liberated in all countries from the incrimination too often merited of perpetuating misunderstanding and hatred among nations, anxious to be truthful towards the whole of the human race, uniting indissolubly the scientific spirit with the spirit of international co-operation, will be a powerful factor of peacemaking.

All undertaking tending to establish direct or indirect relations to further *sympathy in thought and feelings among* children, young people or adults of various countries (individual and collective trips, vacation camps and international exchange of children and students, inter-scholar correspondence, days of goodwill and so forth) as a means of building up mutual comprehension between man and man or between nation and nation will create an atmosphere favourable to lasting peace.

Methods for the Promotion of a Continued Culture and Professional Education of Teachers in Service

Arising out of a discussion on methods for the promotion of a continued culture and professional education of teachers in service, the following resolutions were adopted :

I.—Declaration

The Conference of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations, meeting in Oxford (1935), declares :

That the training of teachers for the rendering of that social service to the community, with which they are entrusted, requires the continuance of their education after they enter upon their teaching service ;

That, since each strengthen the other, the general education should not be separated from the professional training ; that in particular, university training in accordance with the principles previously accepted by the I.F.T.A. would seem to be a necessary preliminary provision for all subsequent improvement for teachers in service.

II.—Appeal

The Conference of the I.F.T.A., while recognising that, generally speaking, the economic crisis and certain of its

political consequences handicap teachers in their efforts to continue their own education, appeals to all educationists to maintain during these troublous times their confidence in the supremacy of the spirit over all forms of violence and all forces of brutality.

III.—Resolution

(a) This Conference of the I.F.T.A. believes that while observing each country's autonomy in education, the continued professional and cultural education of teachers could be improved by the establishment of special schools and classes for experimental research.

(b) The Conference of the I.F.T.A. recommends that leave of absence with full pay should after several years of teaching experience be granted to teachers desirous of improving their professional knowledge either by undertaking research work, or by the comparative study of the schools of their own country and those of foreign countries.

(c) The Conference of the I.F.T.A. requests the Secretariat to investigate the possibility of organising under the auspices of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation an International University of Intellectual Information where, during school vacations, specially qualified scientists, philosophers, artists, writers and professors would be able to report upon the present position in relation to their own branch of knowledge or to make known to the general public and especially to educationists the results of any research work they themselves had undertaken.

(d) The Conference of the I.F.T.A. considers the possibility of the formation, if necessary in co-operation with other Associations, of an International Institute whose first task would be to issue :

(1) An annual review called "Les Annales de la Pédagogie" reviewing the educational publications, the title of each publication being followed by a summary of its contents ;

(2) A monthly review called "Les Annales de l'Enseignement" giving a monthly analysis of the work of the various groups of teachers concerning their professional activities.

Soviet Teachers and Affiliation

M. E. Vlasak (Czechoslovakia, Svaz), seconded by four Associations, moved that the Executive be instructed to study the possibilities of establishing closer relations with the Teachers' Associations of Soviet Russia. In supporting his motion, M. Vlasak said that Russia had shown evident signs of a movement towards democracy and had, indeed, joined the League of Nations.

In supporting the reference, Mr. H. N. Penlington reminded Conference of the Santander incident. At that time he favoured the request of the German teachers to be allowed to take part in the proceedings. His attitude towards Russia would be the same as his attitude towards Germany.

The motion was carried and the Executive will report to the next Conference of I.F.T.A.

Agreement with W.F.E.A.

Conference approved unanimously the draft of the agreement reached with the W.F.E.A. The text of the agreement will be found on pages 62-63.

Financial Statement

The report of the Committee of Financial Control to approve the Treasurer's Statement was unanimously carried, together with congratulations to the Treasurer on his excellent administration. It was noted that on 20th July, 1935, the Federation's funds amounted to frs. 82,871.79 (available) and frs. 36,282.60 (non-available). The International Assistance Fund, created in 1934, amounted to frs. 25,585.95.

Election of Executive Committee, 1935-36

The Executive Committee was elected, as prescribed by the by-laws, as follows :

Germany : Seat left vacant.

England (National Union of Teachers).*

France (Syndicat National des Instituteurs).*

(* *Have permanent seats.*)

The following countries were called upon to appoint representatives :

Australia.

Czechoslovakia.

Poland.

Sweden.

Yugoslavia.

Both Secretaries, M. Dumas and M. Lapierre, were re-elected unanimously.

Place and Date of Next Conference

Invitations from Denmark and Yugoslavia were received by Conference. The Executive at its meeting in November will decide upon the place and the date of the next Conference.

